'We are of opinion that a Statistical Survey of the country would be attended with much utility: we therefore recommend proper steps to be taken for the execution of the same.' despatch from the Court of Directors of the East India Company forms the beginning of the history of statistical surveys in India. A comprehensive and coordinated scheme of Statistical Survey for each of the 12 great provinces of the then British India was, however, launched in 1867 as a result of a directive received from the Secretary of State. The work was entrusted to W.W. Hunter, the then Director-General of Statistics to the Government of India. Statistical Account of the then provinces of Bengal and Assam comprising 59 districts was prepared under his personal supervision. The province of Bengal was a very big province It included areas which now comprise Bangla Desh and the States of West Bengal, Bihar and Orissa of the Indian Union.

The Statistical Account of Bengal was published in 20 volumes. Each volume proceeds on a uniform pattern. Starting with a description of geography, general aspects and physical features, etc. of each district, it proceeds to a description of its people, their occupations, ethnical divisions and creeds, their material condition and distribution into town and country. Agriculture follows with very revealing information on land 'enures, prices and wages, rates of rent and size of landholdings, and the natural calamities to which the district is subject. Commerce, means of communication, manufactures, capital and interest. and other industrial aspects form the next item. The working of District Administration is then discussed in great detail—its revenue and expenditure; the statistics of protection to person and property, the police, the i**alls, and the** criminal classes: the statistics of education and of the post office, with notices of any local

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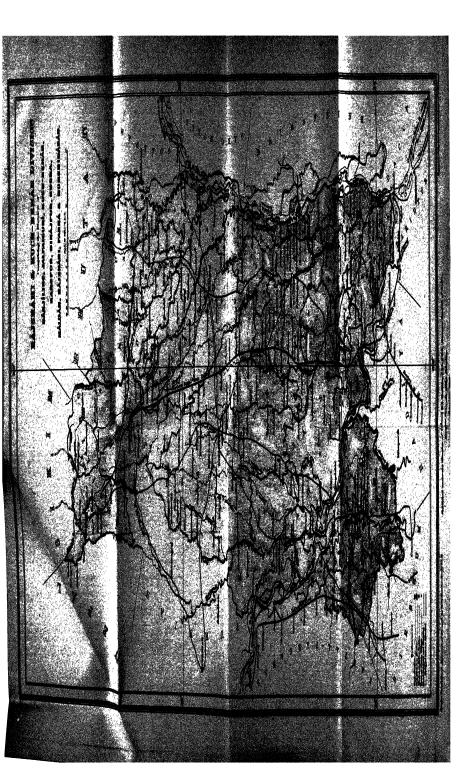
A Statistical Account of Bengal

W W HUNTER



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A STATISTICAL ACCOUNT OF BENGAL

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VOLUME VII.

DISTRICTS OF MALDAH, RANGPUR, AND DINÁJPUR.

TRÜBNER & CO., LONDON 1876.

PREFACE

TO VOLUME VII. OF

THE STATISTICAL ACCOUNT OF BENGAL.

THIS volume treats of the rich alluvial tract lying between the main channels of the Ganges and the Brahmaputra. Its most westerly District, Maldah, formed the focus of early civilisation in Lower Bengal, and contains the ruins of Gaur, the ancient capital. Its most easterly District, Rangpur, supplies the connecting link between the Gangetic Provinces and the once famous kingdom of Kámrúp, the outpost of the Sanskrit-speaking stock in Eastern India. The tract still exhibits the landmarks of race-conflicts and dynastic changes, and of those fluvial revolutions during which the rivers seamed the face of the country with the traces of their work of destruction and reconstruction. Side by side with these ancient landmarks are springing up the signs of a new state of things. In the west, tillage is now encroaching on the long silent swamps around the ruins of Gaur; in the north and east, the enforced order of British rule has cleared the jungles of the bandit settlements which were for so many years the scourge of Bengal.

The three Districts dealt with in this volume contained, in 1872, a population of 4,328,322 souls, and an area, as estimated for the Census of that year, of 9415 square miles. I beg to express my great obligations to my friend Mr. James S. Cotton, late Fellow of Queen's College, Oxford, for his help in compiling the Account of Maldah; and to Mr. Charles A. Dollman for his assistance in the Districts of Rangpur and Dinájpur.

W. W. H.

1876.

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INTRODUCTORY NOTE

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

THE local weights and measures are given in detail at pp. 78, 268-72, and 397-98. In some instances in the following volume, these weights and measures have been converted into their English equivalents, and the native names have not been added. In such cases the reconversion from the English equivalents may be effected with sufficient accuracy in accordance with the following tables:—

MONEY.

I pie ($\frac{1}{18}$ of an $\frac{1}{2}$ farthing.

1 pice ($\frac{1}{4}$ of an $\frac{1}{4}$ n $\frac{1}{4}$ farthings.

 $1 \text{ ann a } (\frac{1}{14} \text{ of a rupee}) = 1\frac{3}{4} \text{ pence.}$

The rupee is worth, according to the rate of exchange, from 1s. 8d. to 2s.; but for conventional conversions it is taken at 2s.

WEIGHTS.

The unit of weight is the ser (seer), which varies in different Districts from about 1½ lbs. to 2'205 lbs. This latter is the standard ser as fixed by Government, and corresponds to the metrical kilogramme. For local calculations in Lower Bengal, the recognised ser may be taken at 2 lbs. The conversion of Indian into English weights would then be as follows:—

1 chhaták ($\frac{1}{16}$ of a ser) = 2 oz.

1 ser $(\frac{1}{40}$ of a maund) = 2 lbs.

I man or maund (say) = 82 lbs.

LAND MEASURE.

The unit of land measure is the bighá, which varies from $\frac{1}{2}$ of an acre to almost 1 acre. The Government standard bighá is 14,400 square feet, or say $\frac{1}{2}$ of an acre; and this bighá has been uniformly adopted throughout the following volume.

ERRATUM.

Page 21, line 4, for 'so full' read 'are so full.'

I shall be grateful for any corrections or suggestions which occur to the reader. They may be addressed to me, care of the Secretary to the Bengal Government, Calcutta.

STATISTICAL ACCOUNT

OF THE

DISTRICT OF MALDAH.

THE District of Maldah lies in the west of the Rajshahi Division. It is situated between 24° 29' 50" and 25° 22' 30" north latitude, and 87° 48' 0" and 88° 33' 30" east longitude. It contains a total area, after recent transfers, of 1806'64 square miles, exclusive of river area, as returned by the Boundary Commissioner in September 1874; and a population of 676,426 persons, as ascertained by the Census of 1872. For the pur-

1 This Account of the District has been compiled chiefly from the following sources :--(1) The answers to my five series of questions, signed by the Collector, Mr. Alexander, C.S., and drawn up in 1870-71. (2) Five Ms. folios, containing Dr. Buchanan Hamilton's Accounts of Dinappur and Purnish, compiled about 1807-1813. (3) Geographical and Statistical Report on the District of Maldah, by Mr. J. J. Pemberton, Revenue Surveyor, dated October 1852. (4) Report on the Land Tenures of the District, by the Deputy-Collector, Babu Sitakant Mukharji, dated 1873. (5) Report on the Land Tenures of the Chanchal Estates, by Mr. Reily, Manager under the Court of Wards, November 1873. (6) Report on the Bengal Census of 1872, by Mr. Beverley, C.S., with subsequent District Compilation by Mr. C. F. Magrath, C.S. (7) Statement of the prevailing rates of rent in the District, drawn up by the Collector, Mr. Alexander, August 1872. (8) Annual Reports on the Police of the Lower Provinces for 1870 and 1871. (9) Annual Report on the Jails of the Lower Provinces for 1870 and 1872, with Statistics for earlier years, specially prepared by the Inspector-General of Jails. (10) Annual Reports of the Educational Department for 1856-57, 1860-61, 1870-71, 1872-73. (11) Postal Statistics, furnished by the Director-General of Post Offices. (12) Area and latitudes and longitudes, furnished by the Surveyor-General. (13) Income Tax Reports for 1870-71 and 1871-72. (14) Parganá Statistics of Bengal, published by the Board of Kevenue. (15) Answers to my series of questions, signed by the District Medical Officer, Bábu Umá Charan Kastogri, and by his successor, Babu Dwarka Nath Chattarji. (16) Annual Meteorological Reports of Bengal for 1871 and 1872. (17) Annual Reports on the Charitable Dispensaries of Bengal for 1871 and 1872. (18) Government Resolution on the Boat Traffic of Bengal, dated 18th October 1875.

poses of the Census, the area of the District was taken at 1813 square miles, and for the sake of uniformity that number has been taken as the basis of all average calculations regarding the area. The Civil Station and Administrative Headquarters are at English Bázár, which is also the principal town in the District, situated on the west bank of the Mahánandá river, in 25° o' 14" north latitude and 88° 11' 20" east longitude.

BOUNDARIES.—Maldah is bounded on the north by the Districts of Purniah and Dinájpur, on the east by the Districts of Dinájpur and Rájsháhí, on the south by the Districts of Rájsháhí and Murshídábád, and on the west by the Districts of Murshídábád, the Santál Parganás, and Purniah. The river Ganges forms the boundary of the District along the western and south-western frontier.

IURISDICTION.—The District of Maldah has grown by degrees and at the expense of the neighbouring Districts. It would be difficult to fix the precise date at which it may be said to have attained to administrative independence. As early as 1770 the town of English Bázár was the site of an important Commercial Residency; and the fortified structure, which was then necessary for the protection of the Resident, still affords a house for the Collector, and the building which contains the court and its records. Up to the early part of this century, and at the time when Dr. Buchanan Hamilton compiled his Ms. description of this part of Bengal, the greater part of the area now comprised within Maldah was divided pretty equally between the Collectorates of Dinájpur and Purniah, the river Mahánandá then forming the boundary between those two Districts. February 1813 the Superintendent of the Police of the Lower Provinces laid before Government an unfavourable report on the state of crime in this tract of country. He stated that the number of burglaries was very great in the following thánás, viz. in Síbgani, Káliáchak, Bholáhát, and Gárgáribá, which were then included within Purniah District, and in Maldah and Bámangolá within Dinájpur, and in Rohanpur and Chapái within Rájsháhí. condition of things he attributed to the extreme distance at which those thánds were situated from the Magistrate's headquarters at Purniah and Dinájpur,-Káliáchak, for instance, being more than 100 miles from Purniah. These representations seem to have at once produced their effect; for in March 1813 the thands which correspond to the present District of Maldah were placed under the charge of a Joint-Magistrate and Deputy-Col-

lector. A Registrar was also appointed. The powers of the Joint-'Magistrate and Deputy-Collector were of an anomalous character, and hence originated the confusion which for a long time overhung the criminal, revenue, and civil jurisdictions of Maldah. This officer seems at first to have been to a certain extent under the control of the two Collectors of Purniah and Dinajpur, all communications from the Board of Revenue being transmitted to him through one or the other of their treasuries. In his capacity, however, of Joint-Magistrate he was practically independent. Certain thands had been carved out of the Districts of Purniah and Dinaipur and placed under his charge, but he was not controlled in any way by the Magistrates of those Districts. In 1832 a treasury was for the first time established at Maldah; and from that year the independence of the District is usually dated. It was not, however, till 1859 that the title of Joint-Magistrate and Deputy-Collector was changed into that of Magistrate and Collector, and Maldah was placed in all respects on an equality with its neighbours. Up to the present date a Judge has never been appointed to the District. The sessions are held by the Judge of Dinajpur, who comes into the District quarterly for that purpose; to him also all criminal appeals lie. The mere appointment of independent officers was not sufficient to create simplicity of jurisdiction. In 1870, the Collector reported that there was much intermingling and confusion between the criminal, revenue, and civil jurisdictions. Some portions of the District lay within the civil jurisdiction of Dinaipur, Purniah, or Murshidábád, while for criminal and revenue purposes they belonged to Maldah. In other portions, only the criminal jurisdiction rested with Maldah, and both the revenue and civil jurisdictions were with one or other of the three above-mentioned Districts. The Collector added that these anomalies were shortly to be amended; and, according to the latest accounts, the old boundaries of Maldah have now (1875) been greatly simplified. The Ganges has been used throughout as a main boundary to the westward, and the detached portions on each side of that river have been assigned to their proper Districts. The river Mahananda has also been made to form the boundary to a certain extent on the extreme north-east. As the result of these various transfers, it would seem that the total area of the District has been augmented by almost one-third, as compared with its estimated extent thirty years ago.

GENERAL ASPECT OF THE DISTRICT.—The District is naturally divided into two nearly equal portions by the river Mahananda,. which flows almost due north and south. This boundary-line corresponds, according to the local account, to the well-known division of Bengal between the Barendra and Rarhi Brahmans, the Barendra samin lying to the east of this river, and the Rarhi zamin to the west. The whole country is no doubt alluvial in origin, but the tract that lies to the west of the Mahananda and in the direction of the Ganges is low-lying, and to a great extent still subject to the effects of fluvial action. The soil is sandy, but enriched each year by the deposits of mud that are left by the inundations of the Ganges. In this part of the District are situated the chars and various other alluvial accretions, which the Ganges has created during that important change in its channel which has taken place since it washed the walls of the ancient city of Gaur. The lands are very fertile, and admirably adapted for the cultivation of rice, mulberry, indigo, and the mango tree, which form the staple crops of the District. This agricultural prosperity centres on the banks of the Mahananda in the neighbourhood of the Civil Station, where the villages cluster very thickly, and a succession of magnificent mango orchards line the river side, interspersed with mulberry plots. The mode of cultivation which is required by the mulberry gives a curious aspect to this part of the country. The plants would be entirely destroyed if their growth, like that of the rice, was overtopped by the annual floods, and consequently the land has to be artificially embanked to the height of eight or ten feet above the ordinary level. This is effected by the digging of deep, broad dykes, and the throwing of the earth thus obtained upon the little plots of ground that are destined for the mulberry. The plant itself is pleasing in colour, and the soil is carefully and repeatedly hoed, so that land under mulberry cultivation wears the appearance of a series of well cared-for gardens. The general result produced, when regarded from above, has been described as like a great chessboard, or an old-fashioned heavy door, with small, thick panels in high relief. The general fertility of this half of the District is interrupted by the ruins of Gaur. Between these ruins and the Mahananda lie extensive, undrained, and uncultivated swamps: the site of the city itself is at the present day a wilderness of pestilential jungle, and the home of wild beasts. Of late years cultivation has somewhat extended in this direction; and the soil

is not unfertile, being largely impregnated with brickdust, the detritus of the ruined buildings of the ancient capital of Bengal. The jungle, however, is so dense and stocked with tigers, and the exhalations from the soil and the lakes so full of malaria, that it is still difficult to persuade the cultivators to spend the night near their clearings, and there are no villages in the immediate neighbourhood. The half of the District which lies to the east of the Mahananda presents an entire contrast to the western portion, being in all respects less thickly cultivated and less civilised. The ground is for the most part elevated and overgrown with low jungle. The soil is composed of hard red clay, but in the river basins it is sandy, with an admixture of clay and loam. It is intersected by two considerable rivers, the Tangan and the Purnabhaba, which both flow in a south-westerly direction from the neighbouring District of Dinajpur. Their ordinary level is some 50 or 100 feet below the high lands which make up this part of the country; and in the rains they rise at least 30 feet, entirely filling the broad and sloping basins through which they flow, and spreading out into lake-like sheets of water. At other seasons, these low lands are covered with grass jungle, and produce little more than an abundance of small game. In some places crops of boro rice are raised, and are irrigated directly from the river by means of the common country jant. On the higher ground, which gradually slopes away from the rivers to the jungle of the interior, crops of rabi or transplanted winter rice are grown, and some efforts are being made to reclaim the borders of the jungle, But little progress, however, has been made, for the ravages of wild beasts of all kinds cause great devastation, and the population is both scanty and unprogressive. The remainder of this tract of country, down to the borders of the low-lying land along the rivers, is entirely occupied with thorny tree jungle, called kátál. There are no large forests, but a continuous spread of jungly swamp, broken in upon by narrow, steep nálás, and very thinly inhabited. The whole of this tract is generally known as the kátál, and it extends from the Civil Station to the north-east and the south-east as far as the borders of Dinájpur. It shows traces of having been at one time occupied by a considerable population. Many tanks are to be seen, some of them of grand proportions, scattered over a wide area. The ruins of the magnificent Muhammadan city of Panduah or Peruah are situated in the very wildest and most dangerous portion of this jungle; and the Collector states that there were probably many villages in former times on

these high lands, secure from all fear of inundation. 'But at the present day,' he continues, 'there are now merely a few miserable huts, not worthy to be called villages, inhabited mostly by aboriginal or semi-aboriginal tribes.' It has also been remarked that the members of all the most respected Hindu castes are to be found in the western portion of the District. The south-eastern part, however, which borders on Rájsháhí, is of a less forbidding character. Cultivation is more widely spread, the villages are more numerous, and the large mango orchards and mulberry plots recall the appearance presented by the land on the western bank of the Mahananda. The extreme north and north-west corner of the District, which lies between the Mahánandá, the Kálindrí, and the Ganges, has again a character peculiar to itself. It is covered with jungle, and much cut up by nálás, which are only open during the height of the rainy season. These channels are apparently old beds of the Kálindrí, or perhaps of the Kusi river, now silted up. The soil is extremely poor,-short grass, which affords pasturage to a considerable number of cattle, being the only produce that it yields.

ELEVATED LANDS, HILLS, ETC.—There are no mountains or even hills in the District; but the whole country to the east of the Mahánandá, called the kátál, lies at an elevation of about 50 to 100 feet, and, being intersected with frequent deep nálás, gives the appearance of being broken into small hills.

RIVER SYSTEM.—The four following rivers are navigable throughout the year for boats of upwards of 100 maunds, or say four tons burden,—the Ganges, the Mahánandá, the Kálindrí, and the Purnabhabá. Four others, namely, the Tángan, the Páglá, the Sonákhálí, and the Suarmásá, are also navigable, but only during the rainy season, and for boats of under 50 maunds, or say two tons burden.

The river system of Maldah is mainly constituted by the Ganges, with its numerous old beds and branch channels, and the Mahánandá, with its three considerable tributaries. The main stream of the Ganges, before its volume of water has been diminished by the first of its deltaic offshoots, runs along the entire west and south-west border of the District. It first touches on the District at the north-west corner, just after it has received the tributary waters of the Kusí, exactly opposite the hills of Rájmahal. At this point it immediately takes a wide curve, and proceeds for some 15 miles in a southerly direction. It then flows onwards in a course which, despite many bold windings, is on the whole towards the south-

east; and finally leaves the District at its extreme southern corner, at the point where it is joined by the Mahananda, just above the police station of Godágárí in the adjoining District of Ráisháhl. Its stream thus affords the most admirable means of water communication for this portion of the District; but there are few large seats of river traffic upon the Maldah bank of the river, nor, with the exception of the Mahananda and a few nameless ndlds, does it receive any increase of water from its left side. It is, however, in the District of Maldah that more important changes of channel have taken place than in any other portion of the course of the true Ganges, and it is here that the river is still most active in cutting down portions of its banks and forming new chars. It is tolerably certain that in the times of the Hindu kings of Bengal the main stream of the Ganges flowed in a channel still called the Bhágirathi, and washed the western walls of the city of Gaur, which are now nearly ten miles distant from its present course. In 1810. it was believed by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton that the general set of the current was away from the plains on the Maldah side, and against the hills on the opposite bank. The map compiled by Mr. Pemberton. the Revenue Surveyor, in 1848, represents the town of Rajmahal as actually on the main stream of the river. The current has now set in the opposite direction. Rajmahal has been deserted by the Ganges. which now threatens to find its way through the middle of the District of Maldah. The Collector stated in 1870 that the Ganges was then quite close to Haiátpur, which two or three years before was several miles distant from it; and that there was some likelihood of its cutting into the Kálindrí near Gárgáribá, in which case there would be heavy floods in the District. It would seem that in this neighbourhood there has always been a navigable junction between the Ganges and the Kalindri. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, indeed. describes the lower part of the Kálindrí, between this point and the town of Maldah, as a mere branch of the Ganges. He does not, however, appear to mean that any considerable volume of Ganges water passed down this way, but merely that at Gárgáribá there was an important navigable connection between the Kalindri and an old branch of the Ganges called the Buriganga. About fifteen miles farther down its course, at the salient angle of a great bend in its channel, the Ganges sends off what is now a little branch, only navigable during the rains, and almost dry in the hot weather, called the Chhotá Bhágirathí. This is presumably the old bed of the great river itself.

and is still revered as at least equal in holiness to any other part of the sacred stream. This stream runs first towards the east, and then generally in a southerly direction, bordering for thirteen miles the ruins of the city of Gaur. A little way farther down, the Ganges sends off, also to the east, a larger branch, the Páglá or Páglí, into which the Chhotá Bhágirathí ultimately flows, and which before it regains the Ganges encloses a large island about sixteen miles long. During the rainy season the Páglá is navigable for boats of considerable size; but at other times, though it has many deep pools, it retains no current. Somewhat above the point where it finally leaves the District, the Ganges sends off southwards toward Nadiyá a branch which retains the name of the Bhagirathi, while the great river thenceforth loses the larger part of its sanctity. Alluvion and diluvion are perpetually taking place all down the Maldah bank, which is itself a comparatively modern creation of the river, but it is impossible to specify particular instances. The bed of the river is sandy, and the banks on the Maldah side are rather abrupt, except in the localities where new chars and sandbanks adjoining the land, which are known as didris, are in course of formation. The banks are well cultivated throughout. The Ganges is not fordable at any season of the year, and there is only one important ferry, opposite the town of Ráimahal.

THE MAHANANDA, flowing from Purniah, first touches the District of Maldah at its extreme north. For about twenty-five miles it skirts the District, forming its north-east boundary, and receiving as its sole tributary the Nagar from the east. It then enters the District, and for the remainder of its course, in a direction that is almost due south, divides it, as has been already mentioned, into two equal portions, and finally falls into the Ganges at the southernmost corner of the District, just above the police station of Godágárí in Rájsháhí. Its entire course within the District would be about ninety miles in a straight line, but its numerous windings add largely to that distance. Its most important tributaries are, on the left bank the Tángan and the Purnabhabá, and on the right bank the Kálindrí. account of these rivers will be given later. The Mahananda forms a most important channel of communication between Lower Bengal and the upper Districts. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, in the early part of the present century, found that boats of 500 maunds, or say 17 tons burden, could make their way up this river as far as the confluence of the Tangan at all times of the year. Boats of more than

200 maunds, or say 7 tons burden, were prevented by sandbanks from passing above Maldah during the dry season. The town of Maldah, which is situated at the confluence of the Kalindri with the Mahánandá, is an important mart for local trade, as it gets the traffic from both rivers. The channel of the Mahananda is very deep, and varies in breadth from about 400 to 800 yards. At certain seasons of the year, the melting of the snows in the mountains, combined with the local rainfall, causes the river to rise as much as thirty feet. An embankment has been constructed just above the Civil Station of English Bázár, to ward off the dangers of an inundation. The banks of the river are abrupt and very steep, and have confined the river in pretty much the same channel which it occupied a hundred years ago. Alluvion and diluvion, therefore, are not taking place to any considerable extent. One important change, however, has occurred of late years in the course of the Mahananda, a short distance below the police station of Chapái. The Collector stated in 1870, that three years earlier the river used to flow with a bold sweep to the east, round by the village of Hoglá, a circuit of some three miles, but that it had then made for itself a short cut due south, on to the Government khás mahal of char Mirzspur. The banks are highly cultivated throughout the greater part of its course in this District. During the rainy season it is nowhere fordable.

THE KALINDRI OF KALINDI enters the District from Purnish about six miles north of the trading mart of Haiatpur, near which place a natural connection has been effected between this river and a side stream of the Ganges. The main body of its waters, however, comes down from the mountains of Sikkim, being really one of the offshoots of the Kusi, and only assumes the name of the Kálindrí shortly before its entrance into this District. From Haidtpur it runs in a south-easterly direction and with a very winding course for about twenty miles, to join the Mahananda at the town of Maldah. It receives no tributaries of any importance, the neighbouring country draining into it by means of ndlds, which only during the rains contain any volume of water. The river is not wide, but it flows in a very deep channel between high banks of hard red clay. The banks are generally cultivated, and the bed of the river itself is sandy. As with the Mahananda, so with the Kalindri, the rise of water in the rainy season is very considerable, and at that time of the year it is nowhere fordable. The Collector states that in the vicinity of Haistpur and Gargariba there are to be seen numerous

old river beds now entirely silted up, which may have been former channels of this river, but that the present condition of the channel of the Kálindrí leads him to think that these changes date from many centuries back. This spot, it must also be recollected, is near the junction of the great Kusí with the Ganges, and has even in late years been the scene of much fluvial activity on the part of both these rivers.

Proceeding down the Mahananda, the Tangan on the left bank is the next important tributary. This river flows from Dinájpur into the north-east corner of the District, and, after a southerly course of nearly thirty miles, empties itself into the Mahánandá at Muchiá, a small mart for rice and grain. A small stream called the Khási joins it from the west at Bámangolá. The Tángan brings down with it a large quantity of silt, and has of late years suffered considerable changes of course. In 1807, when Dr. Buchanan Hamilton compiled his Ms., this river effected its junction with the Mahananda at a place called Ahorgani, about seven miles lower down than at present, and a little above the Bangabárí factory. There was then a small nálá connecting Muchiá with the Tángan, into which the main body of the stream has now turned, entirely abandoning its old bed, which is still traceable in a southern direction by Kenduá. The Collector states that the Tángan has also apparently altered its course in the neighbourhood of the village of Rániganj. There was here situated a hunting lodge or country seat belonging to one of the kings of Gaur, and connected with that city by a high embanked road. On this road, and close to the old house, there are still to be seen the remains of a stone bridge, which evidently spanned the former channel of the river at this place. The banks are distinct and well marked but the river now flows at a distance of about two miles from this bridge. The channel of the Tángan is in many places becoming choked by the sand and mud brought down from the hills, to such an extent as to seriously impede navigation during the hot weather. This silting up of the bed is especially observable near Bimangola. The general description of this river will also apply with sufficient accuracy to the Purnabhaba, the remaining tributary of the Mahananda on its left bank. This river likewise flows from the District of Dinajpur in a south-westerly direction, and joins the Mahananda at Makrampur, about a mile below the busy grain mart of Rohanpur. Both these rivers penetrate the dense

Maldah. They flow through a soil of hard red clay, and their banks are consequently high and abrupt. Their beds are sandy, and for the most part not liable to change; and no alluvion or diluvion in the ordinary sense seems to take place in them. The high land of the kátál rises above the river banks at a distance of from half a mile to two and a half miles, and the valleys are occupied by heavy grass jungle. It is only in a few places in the neighbourhood of the thinly-scattered villages that the jungle has been cleared, for the cultivation of patches of boro rice. During the rains the whole of the basins of these rivers which are enclosed by the kátál are entirely filled by the flood of waters which comes down from above. At this season, therefore, both the Tángan and the Purnabhabá may be said to expand into large lakes.

MARSHES, ARTIFICIAL WATER-COURSES, ETC.—There are no important lakes or canals in the District. The following is a list of the larger bils or swamps, arranged according to the police circles in which they are situated:—(1) In Gajol—Bámangolá bil, Jagdal bil, Ráníganj bil, and Bhaiár bil. (2) In Kharbá—Cháchar bil. (3) In Gárgáribá—Saulmárí bil, and Dagun bil. (4) In Kálláchak—Kowá Khon bil, and Sabdalpur bil. (5) In Síbganj—Mirzápur Karun Khálí bil, Sukur Bárí bil, and Báraghariá bil. (6) In Nawábganj—Haripur bil, Kámmár bil, Nádáhi bil, and Sarjon Mallakpur bil. (7) In Gumáshtápur—Chaná Parasan bil. (8) In old Maldah—Dhájorá bil, and Mádháipur bil. (9) In English Bázár—Gondáil bil, and Bháttiá bil.

The only navigable water-course, besides the rivers already described, is a khall called Jaharpur Dánrá, which connects the Páglá, an offshoot of the Ganges, with the Mahánandá near Kánsát. This khall appears to be a natural channel, artificially deepened so as to admit of the passage of large boats in the rainy season. The Collector, however, could not ascertain at what time or by whom it had been thus altered.

There are also to be found in the District of Maldah some ancient tanks of vast dimensions, which will be described in connection with the ruins of Gaur and Panduah.

The total loss of life from drowning during the five years ending 1870 is stated to have amounted to 454, or nearly 91 persons each year.

RIVER TRAFFIC.—There are no towns of which the inhabitants

can be said to live solely from river traffic. English Bázár, Maldah, and Rohanpur, the three most populous places in the District, conduct a considerable trade in grain and other products, which chiefly passes in boats up and down the Mahananda. Many rice and grain merchants live at these towns, especially at the two latter of them, It is down the who of course receive their stores by water. Mahánandá and its tributaries that the surplus stock of Dinájpur and Maldah rice, amounting annually to about two million maunds or 73,214 tons, is exported on its way towards Behar and the North-Western Provinces. A vast quantity of traffic is also consigned down the Mahananda to Calcutta, consisting chiefly of rice, tobacco, gunny-bags, and oil-seeds. The up traffic is mostly salt and cotton from Calcutta. A considerable river trade is also carried on in khar grass for thatching, and nal reeds for making charcoal. The reeds are usually purchased by blacksmiths, who use the charcoal largely in their trade. In former days, timber-rafts in great numbers used to be floated down the Mahananda and its tributaries from the mountains of Nepál; but the Collector states that now, from reasons external to the District, this traffic is much diminished, though not yet entirely extinct. The principal river mart on the Ganges is Haidtpur, whose prosperity depends upon the junction which the Ganges has here established between itself and the Kálindrí. years ago the site of this town was several miles distant from the river, but now (1875), owing to a favourable change in the set of the current, Haiátpur has become the most important seat of river trade in the District.

UTILIZATION OF THE WATER SUPPLY.—There are no rivers or streams in Maldah used as motive power for turning machinery, nor, in the opinion of the Collector, is it probable that any could be profitably applied to such a purpose. The waters of the rivers and marshes are, in the eastern portion of the District, extensively used for irrigation. A considerable quantity of boro rice is here sown along the banks of the rivers, or round the borders of the swamps. This crop requires to be plentifully irrigated, which is effected, as has been mentioned already, by means of the common country jant. This machine is precisely the same in construction and use as when it was described by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, and doubtless it has remained unchanged for many centuries. It consists merely of a trough, which is lowered and raised by means of a pedal. Some three or four will perhaps be worked in one spot,

pouring the water from the river or swamp into the channel which conducts it over the rice fields.

FISHERIES AND FISHING COMMUNITIES .- The District of Maldah has always been celebrated for its fisheries. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton remarked that the fishermen of the Ganges and of the lower reaches of the Mahananda were more expert in their art than any he had seen elsewhere. The greater portion of the fisheries are in the hands of the zamindars, who either let them out to farmers, or receive directly from the fishermen a certain share of the produce. The great fishery, however, in the Ganges opposite Rajmahal is the immediate property of Government. It extends over some twenty miles of water, and is annually leased out to a contractor. The Collector reports that the rent of this fishery used to average about £,800 per annum, but that of late years, owing to some legal dispute, it has fallen to £500. The Government contractor sublets the fishery in convenient lots to under tenants, who in their turn employ the men of the local fishing castes, receiving from them a certain proportion of the amount caught. The Government contractor has also a privilege called pám-charái, or the right of levying a toll on each boat laden with fish that passes on the river. remaining fisheries in the District the Collector estimates at about 300 in number. Of these, five in the Mahananda, as many more in the Páglá, and one each in the Kálindri and Bhágirathí, making twelve in all, he ranks as principal, being worth about £,100 per annum a-piece. The rest he regards as of minor importance, and of the average value of between f_{120} and f_{1100} a year. As regards the aggregate value of all the fisheries in the District, he is of opinion that the sum realized as rent by the superior landlords may be fairly put at £14,000 per annum. Adding to this the profits of the middle-men and the support of the persons actually engaged in fishing, he thinks that a sum of from £30,000 to £40,000 represents the total value of the fish annually captured in the waters of the District. He gives the following list of twelve classes of people who live by fishing:—(1) Bind; (2) Málo; (3) Jáluá; (4) Tior; (5) Guri; (6) Keut; (7) Surui; (8) Kárál; (9) Rárí; (10) Namsúdra; (11) Málá; (12) Gángat. The total number of these twelve classes he roughly places at somewhat over 24,000 souls, including men, women, and children. This estimate is probably below the mark. The Census of 1872 returned the numbers of the Hindu fishing and boating castes at 24,476. The Census list contains

names not mentioned by the Collector, and to it must be added the number of fishermen who are Muhammadans; and for this purpose it must be recollected that the Hindus form only 51-11per cent. of the total District population. On the other hand, there must be deducted from the total reached by these means the numbers of these classes who may be regarded as boatmen more properly than fishermen, together with those who do not follow their hereditary occupation. On this topic it may be mentioned that Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, writing about the fishermen of these parts. states that 'many of them are really boatmen, who only fish when they cannot procure a voyage; and several also catch ducks, or have other avocations that interfere with their hereditary calling." The number of persons who earn their living on the rivers, exclusive of the fishermen, is not very large. The crews of the trading boats which carry grain to and from the various marts are mostly composed of men of other Districts, chiefly coming from Behar and the northwest. There are very few indigenous boatmen, shipwrights, etc.; and the Collector thinks that their total number may be safely put at less than one thousand men. This estimate, however, is probably too low.

FISHES AND MODES OF FISHING.—The fish in all the Maldah rivers are of the finest description, and are exported in large quantities to Murshidábád. The mullets caught in the Mahánandá are said to be the finest of their species in the world. The Revenue Surveyor (1852) gives the following list of the chief kinds of fish:-Ruhi, hilsá, katlá, tengrá, mhuá, kai, mullet, pábdá, chalwá, kenkrá or crab, chingri or prawn, sioli, and baum or eel. From the same source I borrow a description of the modes of fishing most commonly adopted. Apart from the use of nets of all kinds, angling with a baited hook and spearing fish at night by torchlight are common in the District. 'Line fishing is much resorted to in the vicinity of Maldah and English Bázár, and with considerable success. Several hooks are attached to one line from fifty to sixty yards long. which has a stone or piece of lead fastened to the end, for the purpose of permitting the line to be thrown into the stream to its full extent. Spearing by torchlight is common on all the rivers, and is especially practised at the junction of the Mahananda and Kálindrí. A boat is paddled into the middle of the stream, and a massil or torch is then placed over the stern, so that its full glare falls on the surface of the water. The fish are attracted thereby,

and rise close to the flame without the least timidity. The larger sorts are instantly speared by the fishermen, and the smaller ones caught in landing nets. Ruhi and hilled of enormous size are sometimes taken in this way.' The following more complete list of the fish found in Maldah District is taken from a report on the subject by the Commissioner of Rajshahi Division, dated September 1872: - River fishes-(1) dir; (2) blichd; (3) blighdir; (4) balid; (5) baus; (6) bátkiá; (7) bhanguá; (8) bhedá; (9) boáil; (19) chándá; (11) chelá; (12) chingri or boro ichá; (13) chitál; (14) dári; (15) dhaus; (16) gágar; (17) hilsá; (18) ichá or boro chingri; (19) karti; (20) katlá; (21) kharsolá; (22) khayrá; (23) mírzal; (24) pábdú; (25) pangás; (26) phausú; (27) punthí; (28) ramuch; (29) rith; (30) ruhi; (31) sankoch ot sankar; (32) sheron ot shelvn; (33) tengra. Tank fishes-(1) bdim; (2) bheda; (3) bodil; (4) chingri; (5) gárai; (6) gati; (7) ichá; (8) jial ot singi; (9) kánklai; (10) khalisá; (11) kai; (12) mágur; (13) mírgal; (14) filbdá; (15) phaului; (16) punthi; (17) ruhi; (18) saul; (19) tengri.

ENBANKMENTS. - The rivers and marshes have nowhere been embanked with the object of extending cultivation. There are. however, a countless number of old embankments in the neighbourhood of the ruins of Gaur, but these were constructed with the object of protecting this once populous city from the inundations of the Mahananda. An embahkment of the height of from fisteen to twenty feet is still maintained for a similar purpose close to the Civil Station of English Bázár. There are also in the same part of the District one or more elevated causeways, which look much like embankments, and apparently lead to former country seats of the old kings of Gaur. The Mahananda river, with its tributaries, receives the entire drainage of the District. rainy season, in addition to the local rainfall, the rivers are swollen with the rain and snow of the hills. At this time of the year they sometimes rise as much as thirty feet, so that it is evident that no ordinary embankment could restrain them within their banks. The numerous marshes or bils that are found in the District are the result of the inundations of these rivers, and of course can never be reclaimed so long as the rivers are permitted annually to overflow. To embank all the Mahananda river system would be a task entirely beyond the powers of the local zaminddrs; nor does the Collector think that it could by any means be turned into a profitable enterprise.

The most important MARSH or JUNGLE PRODUCT is the nal or

narkat, a tall, cane-like reed, growing to the height of fifteen or twenty feet, which is found in profusion on the banks of the rivers and in the marshes. In the dry season it is cut, and is sold chiefly to the blacksmiths for the making of charcoal.

The Revenue Surveyor (1852) gives the following account of the uses to which the cane, reed, and grass jungle is applied in Shikárpur parganá, where the samindárs gain a large proportion of their rents from this source:—'The grass jungle is cut in immense quantities, and carried to the mouths of the large rivers, whither whole fleets of boats of all sizes come to renew the chappars or roofs over their decks. The large reed grass is disposed of to the blacksmiths of Maldah and its vicinity, and to those of Nawabganj and Gumáshtápur. It is stated that the charcoal prepared from it emits a much more fervent heat than what is made from wood. The reeds are cut down when the stems assume a bright yellow colour and the tops have withered. They are then tied in bundles, as large as a man can carry, and floated off by the purchaser to his abode on the river side. When required for use, the bundles are first steeped in the river until the reeds become in some measure decomposed, and next taken out and placed in an upright position for the water to drain off. When they have become nearly dry. they are half-burnt, and in this state used as charcoal.'

Both sold and lime may in some sense be called marsh products. Their uses are thus described by the Revenue Surveyor:—'Sold or pith is found in great abundance on the marshy plains, varying in diameter from 1 to 2½ inches. It is used for making hats, toys, artificial flowers, floats for fishing nets, and in various other ways. I have seen the panels of a palarquin made from it. Lime made from shells is very common. A few families gain their livelihood by collecting shells, mostly of the species called Ampularis, Paludina, Unio, and Cyrene, which are to be found in large numbers as the waters dry up from the jhils. The finest stucco is made from this lime; and when carefully applied to pillars, etc., it gives a very pretty polish.'

LONG STEMMED RICE is cultivated to a certain extent in all portions of the District, but nowhere very extensively; nor is the very long-stemmed sort often met with which grows in the deltaic Districts of Lower Bengal. It has not been ascertained whether the stem has lengthened of late years, so as to be able to grow in deeper water than formerly.

THE LINE OF DRAINAGE in Maldah is of a simple character, being mainly determined by the course of the Mahananda river, which bisects the District. The entire portion to the east drains into that river, either directly or through its affluents, the Tangan and the Purnabhabá. The greater part of the country to the west also drains into the same river, with the exception of the low-lying land which borders the Ganges. The general slope of the District is thus almost due south, and the surface water for the most part runs away rapidly. There is, however, to the south of English Bázár and along the right bank of the Mahananda, a chain of large marshes, caused by the overflow of the river during the rains. They lie hetween the Mahananda and the raised tract of ground on which is situated the ruined city of Gaur, and contain a considerable quantity of stagnant water all the year through. The Collector believes that they would drain off westwards towards the Ganges, if it were not for the high embankments with which Gaur has been artificially protected. At any rate their existence is sufficient to explain the traditional unhealthiness of that city.

MINES, MINERALS, ETC.—There are no mineral productions of any sort in the District, nor any natural phenomena of a kind to attract attention.

JUNGLE PRODUCTS.—There are no important or revenue-yielding forests in Maldah. The kittil or thorny jungle, which covers to a large extent the eastern portion of the District, produces no timber trees. It is chiefly composed of thorny bush jungle, mixed with abundance of cotton trees (simal), pipal, har or bat, and paker trees, and nipal bamboos. No profit, therefore, is to be gained from the felling of timber. The banks of the rivers and the low land in the river valleys are to a great extent overgrown with wide strips of grass jungle, into which the cattle at certain seasons of the year are turned out to graze. This can only be done after the jungle has been sufficiently burned, say in the months of February. March. April, and May. The Collector thinks that the extent of these jungle pasturages must amount in the aggregate to some hundreds of square miles, and that their annual value to the samindars is very considerable. The usual charge per head for the cattle turned in is from 4 to 8 annás, or from 6d, to 1s. Tasar silk cannot be regarded as a forest product in this District, nor is any appreciable quantity of beeswax now collected in the jungle. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton states that in his time the collection of wax in some of the jungles VOL. VII.

of this neighbourhood was rented by a Mr. Fernandez. There is, however, no trade at the present day in this article. The samindars do indeed farm out the combs on their estates, but the farmers appear to care only for the honey, and neglect the wax. The bees do not seem to select the kátál for their combs, but occupy any large-sized tree, wherever situated, being especially partial to the hijal tree, which is common in marshes.

The Palís and Kochs, two semi-aboriginal castes, who are very numerous in Maldah, live in the more open parts of the kátál, but they do not earn their livelihood by dealing in jungle products. They cultivate the land to a small extent, but substantially support themselves by hunting and fishing, eating the game they catch. They seem to avoid as much as possible approaching any place of public resort, and are averse to trade or barter. They prefer to gain a bare subsistence directly out of the natural products of the soil.

FERE NATURE.—The following is a list of the more important wild animals:—Tiger, leopard, tiger cat, civet cat, mungoose, otter, hyæna (very rare), wolf (raje), jackal, and ox, rhinoceros (very rare), wild hog, wild buffalo, large swamp deer or gouz, hog deer, and spotted deer. Among smaller game are found,—florican, black partridge, kyah partridge, quail, jungle-fowl, peafowl, snipe, hares, green pigeon, plover (golden and grey), lapwing, wild geese (grey and barred headed), demoiselle crane, wild duck (not very numerous), pintail duck, black pink-headed duck, spotted-bill duck, red-headed pochard, crested pochard, and other ducks and teal.

Maldah has always been celebrated for the unusual quantity of large game which it affords, and especially for its tiger-hunting. The ruins of Gaur and Panduah, each of which extends over several square miles, are the favourite haunt not only of tigers, but of every other beast, bird, and reptile which frequents the isolated jungles of Bengal. The kátál, also, which is estimated to cover about 150 square miles in this District, particularly that portion between the Tángan and Purnabhabá rivers, is almost entirely given up to wild animals. Cultivation is hardly spreading at all in this direction. The jungle is too dense in many cases to admit even the passage of an elephant, and consequently the larger beasts of prey breed almost undisturbed, and their number is not on the decrease. Comparatively few are destroyed by the native skikárís:

but the Collector thinks that from thirty to forty tigers are annually killed by sportsmen, who do not claim the reward. So long as these animals refrain from the habit of attacking men, their presence is desired rather than dreaded by the cultivators. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton expresses the opinion, when writing of this very region, 'that a few tigers in any part of the country that is overgrown with jungle or long grass are extremely useful, in keeping down the number of wild hogs and deer, which are infinitely more mischievous than themselves.' Mr. Pemberton, the Revenue Surveyor in 1848, also states that the inhabitants of Gaur are rather partial than otherwise to the tigers, and are unwilling to point out their lairs to sportsmen. They call them their chaukidurs, as being useful to them in destroying the deer and wild hog, with which the place abounds, and which make sad havoc of their crops.' The other side to the picture may be learned from the story of the notorious man-eater of 1863. This animal had its favourite haunt in the ruins of Panduah, but infested the whole of the high road between Maldah and Dinajpur. It is reported, on the authority of the gentleman who was at that time Magistrate of Maldah, that 'this mischievous and cunning beast killed no less than 110 persons before it was finally shot,"

With reference to the cost annually incurred in keeping down wild beasts, the Collector reports that between 1832 (when the District was first constituted) and 1870, a total of Rs. 2127, 5, 4, or £212, 148. 8d., had been paid out of the treasury under this head. This would give an average of nearly £6 per year, but of course the amount has varied very considerably. For example, in 1847, no less than £24, 10s. od. was paid in one lump for the destruction of 196 hymnas; but since the date of that memorable battue these animals have hardly ever been seen in the District. The annual police reports return the number of deaths from wild beasts for the 8 years ending 1860 at 40, which would give an average of 5 for each year. The number of deaths from snake-bite in the same period is returned at 447, or an annual average of 51. No rewards appear to have been ever offered for snake-killing. There is no trade in wild-beast skins, nor, apart from the fisheries, do the fere nature contribute in any way to the wealth of the District, though it is stated that the porpoises by their oil and the otters by their skins might become most profitable sources of trade

POPULATION.—Prior to the general Census of 1872, no trustworthy information existed with regard to the total number of inhabitants in the District. The only attempts at enumeration were what were called khána sumáris, or house numberings, which were invariably conducted through the local police. The following was the method adopted on these occasions. The number of houses in each thand or police circle was first ascertained as correctly as might be, and then the police proceeded to make inquiries, to the best of their ability, into the number of persons in each house. a great extent they derived their information from the village chaukiders; but a good deal of the result was mere guess-work, especially as regards the female portion of the population. For the year 1869 the Collector has furnished me with a table which contains the population arranged according to thánás and houses. I print it with some hesitation, for though most of the figures approximate to those disclosed by the authentic Census of 1872. some will be at once seen to be wildly incorrect. With reference to the District total, and also the totals of some of the outlying thánás, it should be borne in mind that the area of the District has been largely increased since the date of this enumeration, whereas the number of the thanas has not been altered.

Police Estimate of the Population of Maldah District in 1869.

Police Circles.					No. of Houses.	No. of Persons.	
 English Bázá: Maldah, Káliáchak, Sílganj, Nawábganj, Gárgáribá, Kharlú, Gumáshtápas Gájol, 				: :		16,959 9,100 68,607 22,118 2,860 13,183 6,635 3,502 7,259	72,532 44,332 112,552 110,870 19,480 92,277 34,263 17,576 46,927
				Total,		150,223	550,809

THE CENSUS OF 1872 was taken in the District of Maldah on the night of the 15th January. The method adopted was much the same as elsewhere, the persons employed being generally the mas-

dals and gumáshlás of the several villages. Where none of the residents could read or write, an educated man from an adjoining village was appointed. The total number of enumerators employed in the work was 2067. The aid of the samindars was also enlisted, to test the village registers and to select the enumerators. The Collector was of opinion that 'the Census was successfully and accurately taken.'

The total population of the District was ascertained to be 676,426 souls, living in 2100 villages or townships, and in 129,579 houses. The area was approximately taken at 1813 square miles, which gives the average density of the population at 373 persons per square mile. The table on next page gives the results according to thánás, the averages being those given in the Census Report. The Subdivisional system has not yet been extended to the District of Maldah.

Population classified according to Sex, Religion, and AGE.—The total population of Maldah District consisted in 1872 of 676,426 souls, viz. 331,087 males, and 345,339 females. The proportion of males in the total population was 48.9 per cent, and the average density of the population 373 persons per square mile. Classifying the population according to religion and age, the Census returns yield the following results: - Hindus-under twelve years of age, males, 63,103; and females, 52,924: total, 116,027. Above twelve years of age, males, 114,200; and females, 126,071: total, 240,271. Total of Hindus of all ages, males, 177,303; and females, 178,995: grand total, 356,298, or 52.7 per cent. of the District population. Proportion of males in total Hindu population, 49.8 per cent. Muhammadansunder twelve years of age, males, 62,608; and females, 52,572; total, 115,180. Above twelve years of age, males, 86,571; and females, 109,139; total, 195,710. Total of Muhammadans of all ages, males, 149,179; and females, 161,711; grand total, 310,890, or 46'0 per cent. of the District population. Proportion of males in total Muhammadan population, 48.0 per cent. Christians - under twelve years of age, males, 4; and females, 3: total, 7. Above twelve years, males, 21; and females, 15: total, 36. Christians of all ages, males, 25; and females, 18; grand total, 43. Proportion of males in Christian population, 58:1 per cent. denominations not separately classified, consisting of aboriginal races and hill tribes-under twelve years of age, males, 1623; and Sentence continued on page 39.

AINIRACT OF THE POPULATION, AREA, ETC., IN EACH POLICE CIRCLE (THANA) IN THE DISTRICT OF MALDAH, 1872.

S 2 2.5 Averages calculated by the Census Officers. Houses per Sq. Mile. 9 3 J H 8 5 \$ 2 Pernas per Village or Township. ₹ 33 255 118 519 217 8 \$ 33 Villages or Printanwo'l' Per 5q Alle 91.I 64.1 8 82.1 3 41.1 ģ 5 7 Persons per Sq. Alule 8 t 8 327 212 535 8 ž 8 373 55.316 53.195 50.563 65.548 92,011 48.999 119.375 105.717 676.436 Population. IsmT 129.579 17.626 17.28 9.583 ي. 13. 90.00 10,084 13.683 21,168 10,210 ஆர்பு-மகர் 🕶 2100 8 8 ည္ 8 3 4,7 236 8 ž No 15-limit 27 Pagadli 7 ä 221 233 š 163 152 1813 200 281 Ę Alike STEED OF ASTA DISTRICT TOTAL, Police Circle. Enghah Bazir, . Gumásht.ipur. Naudlgany. Kálischik, Girgirald. Sûgan). Kharld. (itylof.

Sentence continued from page 37.]

females, 1360: total, 2983. Above twelve years, males, 2957; and females, 3255: total, 6212. Total 'others' of all ages, males, 4580; and females, 4615: grand total, 9195, or 1'3 per cent. of the District population. Proportion of males in total 'others,' 49'8 per cent. Population of all religions—under twelve years of age, males, 127,338; and females, 106,859: total, 234,197. Above twelve years, males, 203,749; and females, 238,480: total, 442,229. Total population of all ages, males, 331,087; and females, 345,339: grand total, 676,426. Proportion of males in total District population, 48'9 per cent.

The percentage of children not exceeding twelve years of age in the population, of different religions, is returned in the Census Report as follows:-Hindus-proportion of male children, 17'7 per cent.; and of female children, 1439 per cent.; proportion of children of both sexes, 32 6 per cent. of the total Hindu population. Muhammadans-proportion of male children, 2011 per cent.; and of female children, 16.9 per cent.: proportion of children of both sexes, 37 o per cent. of the total Muhammadan population. Christians-proportion of male children, 9'3 per cent.; and of female children, 7.0 per cent.: proportion of children of both sexes, 16.3 per cent. of the total Christian population. Other denominationsproportion of male children, 17.6 per cent.; and of female children. 14.8 per cent.: proportion of children of both sexes, 32.4 per cent. of the total 'other' population. Population of all religions-proportion of male children, 18.8 per cent.; and of female children, 15'8 per cent.: proportion of children of both sexes, 34'6 per cent. of the total District population. The small proportion of girls to boys, and the excessive proportion of females above twelve years of age to males of the same class, is probably due to the fact that natives consider that girls have attained womanhood at a much earlier age than boys reach manhood.

The number and proportion of insanes and of persons afflicted with certain other infirmities in Maldah District is thus returned in the Census Report:—Insanes—males, 128; and females, 34: total, 162, or '0239 per cent. of the District population. Idiots—males, 25; and females, 8: total, 33, or '0049 per cent. of the population. Deaf and dumb—males, 129; and females, 48: total, 177, or '0262 per cent. of the population. Blind—males, 394; and females, 213: total, 607, or '0897 per cent. of the population. Lepers—males,

290; and semales, 65: total, 355, or '0525 per cent. of the population. The total number of male infirms amounted to 966, or '2917 per cent. of the total male population; number of semale infirms, 368, or '1065 per cent. of the total semale population. The total number of infirms of both sexes was 1334, or '1972 per cent. of the total District population.

POPULATION ACCORDING TO OCCUPATION.—The details under this heading in the District Census compilation have been omitted, as they do not stand the test of statistical criticism.

ETHNICAL DIVISION OF THE PEOPLE.—Maldah presents ethnologically the aspect of a border District. Most of the inhabitants understand the Hindustání as well as the Bengalí language, and, according to the Collector, use the former language with an accent which is purer even than the Urdu spoken in Purniah. In these respects Maldah suggests points of resemblance to the Province of Behar, on which it abuts along its north-western boundary. It is, however, reclaimed for Bengal by the large number of Muhammadans in the population, whose presence is no doubt to be referred to the ancient capitals of Gaur and Panduah. Bengalí also is recognised as the language of the courts.

A noteworthy feature in the Census returns is the large proportion of the semi-Hinduized population formed by the Kochs, Palís, and Rajbansis. It is generally admitted that these three names. merely represent a single race, which, from its connection with the ancient kingdom of Kuch Behar, it is most convenient to term collectively the Kochs. Ráibansí is a much less definite appellation; and the name of Pali, though commonly used in the District of Maldah, is hardly one which the Kochs themselves adopt. With regard to their origin, there is much difference of opinion. Collector, judging from their facial characteristics, and from the circumstance that they are most numerous in the immediate neighbourhood of the Himálayas, thinks that they are of the Mongolian family, and closely connected with the Nepális. Colonel Dalton. on the other hand, chiefly on the ground of their very dark colour, refers them to a southern type. 'The Koch appear to be quite out of their element amongst the Lohitic tribes. It seems more likely that they originally belonged to the dark people, whom they resemble, who were driven out of the Gangetic provinces when the kingdoms of Mithila and Magadhá were established, rather than to the northern Turanian or Indo-Chinese family, to whom they are so unlike. In short, I consider that they belong to the Dravidian stock, and are probably a branch of the great Bhuiyá family.' They can readily be distinguished from all other Bengalís by their broad faces, flat noses, and projecting cheek-bones, as well as by their appearance and different style of dress. In religion they profess to be Hindus; but they do not mix or intermarry with other Hindus, and they practise certain peculiar ceremonies and customs of their own. In this District they are entirely confined to the left bank of the Mahánandá. Their mode of agriculture is very rude, but a manifest improvement is shown in their cultivation when in the vicinity of a genuine Hindu community. They earn their living to a great extent by hunting and fishing, and prefer the freedom of their forest life to working as coolies or day-labourers. Their number in Maldah is about 64,000.

EMIGRATION AND IMMIGRATION.—The only immigrants into this District are a few hill-men from Chutiá Nágpur. These are mostly Dhángars, but there are also some Kols and Santáls. The Dhángars come in search of work, mostly at the indigo factories. Near some factories may be found small villages solely inhabited by these immigrants and their descendants. In some cases the families settle down permanently, and gradually become assimilated to their Hindu neighbours both in customs and in general appearance. Their numbers are occasionally recruited by fresh arrivals from Central India; but immigration has lately much fallen off, owing to the decay of indigo planting. There is no emigration from the District; and the Collector is of opinion that the prosperity of the cultivators, owing to the remunerative nature of their mulberry crops, is such as to cause no desire to leave home. The District, also, is at the present but sparsely peopled.

The following table, taken from Mr. C. F. Magrath's District Census Compilation for Maldah, enumerates the inhabitants of the District according to an ethnical classification. The list of Hindu castes will be reproduced on a subsequent page, arranged in a different order, according to the rank which they hold in social esteem:—

ETHNICAL CLASSIFICATION OF THE INHABITANTS OF MALDAH DISTRICT.

Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Castel	Number.	Name of Nati gn ality, Tribe, or Caste	Number.
I.—NON-ASIATICS. European—		2. Semi-Hinduized Aboriginals—continued.	
English,	9	Máhilí,	1,365
Irish,	1	Mál,	2,062
Scotch,	12 2	Malo,	3,495
Swiss,	2	Mihtár.	283
T1		Mihtár, . Bhuimálí,	2,109
Total, .	26	Musahar,	25
II.—MIXED RACES.		Pási,	312 108
Eurasian,	111	Total, .	135,562
III.— ASIATICS.			
Natives of India and		3. Hindus.	
Burmah.	1	(i.) Superior Castes.	1
1. Aboriginal Tribes.		Brahman,	8,287
Bhar,	140	Rájput,	3,207 328
Bhumij, Dhángar,	38		320
Kharwar,	3,165	Total, .	11,822
Kol,	1,990		
Santal,	164	(ii.) Intermediate Castes.	1
•		Káyasth,	4,601
Total, .	11,717	Bhát,	152
2. Semi-Hinduised		Baidya,	403
Aboriginals.		Total	5,156
Bágdí,	708		
Báheliá,	991	(iii.) Trading Castes.	Í
Bediyá,	383	Agarwálá and Márwárí, .	50
Bhuiyá,	194	Khatri,	50 388
Bind,	6,002	Oswal	
Buná,	30,082	Bakkal, Bania,	1,439
Chámár and Muchi, .	4.829	Subarnabanik.	440
Chandál,	1,236	Gandhbanik,	649
Dom,	1,237	Total, .	7.036
Gangaunti,	2,891	10.01,	3,036
[[jári,	11,675	(iv.) PASTORAL CASTES.	
Káorá,	494	Goálá.	
Koch,	13,908	Gareri,	13,728
l'ali,	24,320		
Kájhansi,	24,724	Total, .	13.793

Name of Nationality, Trise, or Caste	Number,	Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste.	Number.,
(xv.) Persons of Unknown or Unspecified Castes,	10,880	5. <i>Mukammadans</i> . Juláhá, Mughul, Pathán,	140 10 1,441
GRAND TOTAL OF HINDUS,	211,552	Sayyid,	271 2,917 306,111
4. Persons of Hindu Origin not ravognising Caste.		Total, . Total of Natives of	310,890
Vaishnav,	5,849 843	India, Total of Asiatics	676, 389
Total, .	6,698	GRAND TOTAL, .	676,426

HINDU CASTES.—The subjoined list of castes, arranged according to their position in the social scale, and showing the occupations, etc., of each, has been furnished by the Collector. I print it without modification, retaining the local spelling; but it will be observed that the rank assigned to certain castes is most unusual. The numbers, wherever possible, have been taken from the Census Report of 1872: -(1) Bráhman; members of the priesthood; many are also landholders or merchants, or are employed in offices under Government. They are for the most part in good circumstances. There are ten recognised classes of Bráhmans in Maldah,—the Rárhí, the Uttar Bárendra, the Bárendra, the Vaidik, the Kányakubjá, the Maithilí, the Gauriya, the Bhuinhar, the Barua Sankar, and the Acharjya. Of these, the first six are highly esteemed, but, with the exception of the Maithilí Bráhmans, who are numerous in this District, their collective numbers are small. The Gauriyas are few, and not held in equal esteem. The Bhuinhars rank with the six first mentioned. The Barua Sankars, who act as priests to the lower castes, and the Achárjyas, who earn their living by astrology, are even more despised by pure Bráhmans than are the castes with whom they associate. The numbers of these separate classes cannot be ascertained; but the total of Brahmans in Maldah, as returned by the Census of 1872, was 8287. (2) Gir Gosaini; traders, few in number, but rich and esteemed. (3) Baidya; physicians by hereditary profession, but now employed in any honourable and lucrative way: 403

in number. (4) Khatri or Kshatriya; variously employed, and poor; 308. (5) Kayasth; chiefly occupied as clerks, and in good circumstances. The Collector states that they are divided into the three following classes: - Uttar Rárhí, Dakhin Rárhí, and Lálá; and the Census gives the total number as 4601. (6) Rajput; variously employed, and generally poor; 3207. (7) Sadgop; not exclusively cultivators in this District, but variously employed, and poor; 1385. (8) Tili; traders, and rich. (9) Karmakár; blacksmiths; 4312. (10) Kánsabanik; braziers, and rich; 1172. (11) Kumbhakár; potters; 3804. (12) Nápit; barbers; called in the Census Report Hajjám; 6357. (13) Háliá Kaibartta; mostly agriculturalists. (14) Málákár; workers in solá or pith, hat-makers, and makers of (15) Goala; dealers in milk; 13,728. (16) Tantubáya; weavers, traders, etc., well to do; 4791. (17) Swarnakar; goldsmiths; few and poor. (18) Ghandabanik; traders, and rich; 649. (19) Sankhabanik; (20) Hálui; (21) Mayra; all returned as dealers in conch shells; few and poor. The Census Report gives the total of the Sánkhárís at 34. (22) Khyan; cultivators. (23) Bairágí; mostly cultivators, but some religious mendicants. The Census Report gives the number of Vaishnavs, the name by which this class is commonly known, as 5849; and the number of Gosdins, who are their religious teachers, as 843. (24) Subarnabanik; traders, and rich; 440. (25) Bangadesí-sáhá, and (26) Gauradesí-sáhá; traders, merchants, etc.; numerous and rich. (27) Teli; oil-pressers by caste occupation, but many have now taken to trade and are well off. The Census Report, including also (8) Tili, gives the total number as 16,972. (28) Támli; shopkeepers and cultivators; 675. (29) Pundari; mulberry cultivators, and in good circumstances; 11,102. (30) Sutradhar; carpenters; 2162. (31) Guri; boatmen and fishermen; 2464. (32) Sunri; dealers in country spirits; 4654. (33) Chain; cultivators; the most numerous caste in the District; 30,082. (34) Ganesa; cultivators, weavers, etc.; 11,559. (35) Bárui; sellers of betel; 1581. (36) Chuniá; lime-sellers; 72. (37) Jáliá Kaibartta; fishermen and boatmen. The Census Report, including them with (13) Háliá Kaibarttas, gives the total number

¹ Chain.—This caste is more largely represented in Maldah than in any other District of Bengal. Its home is properly in Behar. Mr. Magrath, C.S., in treating of the castes of that Province, states that the Chains are cliefly hoatmen and fishermen, like the Binds, and that, in his opinion, they do not deserve the lad name which attaches to them.

at 24,902, the second most numerous caste in the District. Dhobá; washermen; 3507. (39) Nágar; cultivators; 19,228. (40) Dhánuk; cultivators; 7805. (41) Naluá; dealers in reeds. (42) Betuá; cane basket makers. (43) Dhángar; labourers for hire; 3165. (44) Behárá; palanquin bearers. In the Census Report, this caste, together with the Duliyá, is returned as numbering 1206. (45) Khatgí; (46) Rangí; (47) Dálihárá; all described as merchants, and rich. (48) Soraiyá; boatmen; 1903. (49) Koch; (50) Palia Rájbansí; cultivators. These are returned in the Census Report under the three separate headings of Koch, Pall, and Rájbansí, their collective numbers amounting to 62,952. (51) Gángat;1 (53) Tior; boatmen and fisherfishermen. (52) Jolá; weavers. men; 13,717. (54) Bin; cultivators; 6002. (55) Kárál; fishermen. (56) Chandál; labourers; 1236. (57) Gahindár; boat-repairers. (58) Pátní; boatmen; 1126. (59) Keot; fishermen; 656. (60) Kol; fishermen. (61) Banpor; basket-makers; 34. (62) Kurál; drummers. (63) Byádha; birdcatchers. (64) Badiá; gipsies; 194. (65) Chámár; shoemakers; included in the Census Report with Muchi; total, 4829. (66) Hárí; musicians, etc.; 11,675. (67) Dosád; rural policemen, etc.; 1402. (68) Mehtar; sweepers; 283. (60) Dom; bamboo basket makers and carriers of dead bodies: 1227. (70) Bágdí; palanquin-bearers and labourers; 708.

The Collector is of opinion that no material change has of late taken place either in the numbers or position of any of these castes. There are no predatory castes in the District, for the Badiás of Maldah are very different in character from those of the same name in Eastern Bengal.

RELIGIOUS DIVISION OF THE PEOPLE. - The population of

¹ Gángat.—Thus spelt and described by the Collector. This caste is probably to be identified with the Gangauntás of the Census, 2891 in number. They are not found in any other District of Bengil. Mr. Magrath, C.S., in treating of the castes in the Province of Behar, remarks as follows:—'Gangaunta or Gangain are a tribe who live on dididis and chars, which they bring into cultivation as the sand becomes covered with mud. They are apparently confined to the Bhagalpur Division, and I have not been able to ascertain any further particulars of them.' In his District Compilation for Maldah, Mr. Magrath has so far varied from the Census Report as to transfer them from the agricultural castes to the class headed 'semi-Hinduized aboriginals.'

² This caste is more numerous in Maldah than in any other District of Bengal. Mr. Magrath, C.S., in treating of the castes in the Province of Behar, the original home of the Bins, doubts whether Bin and Bind should be ranked together.

Maldah comprises Hindus, Muhammadans, aboriginals, Vaishnavs, members of the Bráhma Samáj, and Christians. The total number of the Christians is returned by the Census at 43, of whom 37 are either Europeans or Eurasians. The remaining 6 represent the native Christians. There is no important mission in the District.

THE HINDUS in 1872 numbered 356,298 souls, or 527 per cent. of the entire population. This estimate includes the semi-Hinduized aboriginals, who amount to 135,562, or just one-third of the total, and whose acceptance of the Hindu religion is somewhat loose; and also the Vaishnavs and the Samai. The Vaishnavs in 1872 were found to number 5849; and the Gosains, who are their religious teachers, were 843 more. A full description of this sect, whose leading characteristics are to repudiate caste and accept the teachings of Chaitanya, will be found in the Statistical Accounts of Nadiyá and the 24 Parganás. The Bráhma Samáj has taken no hold upon the District. In 1870 the number of its members was estimated by the Collector at 6, and of these none were natives of the District. The town of English Bázár is the only place where the Samáj has obtained a footing. It was first established in 1861, and has since been maintained, with only one short break, mainly by the native Government officials from Lower Bengal who are stationed there. There is no regular place of worship.

THE MUHAMMADANS were found by the Census of 1872 to number 310,890, or 46 per cent of the District population. They are for the most part an active and energetic race,—a fact which may be due to their being largely descended from the conquerors of Gaur and Panduah. They attract more than their share of administrative attention, as is curiously shown by the circumstance that their number until the Census was always supposed to be double that of the Hindus. A great many of them belong to the Faráizí and Wahábí sects; and in 1869 several prosecutions for abetment of waging war against the Queen were instituted in this District. The Collector is of opinion that the proselytizing powers of Islám have now ceased, and that the number of Musalmáns is not proportionately increasing.

THE ABORIGINALS, who have been already referred to, are those who are included in the Census Report under the heading of 'othera.' They number 9195 persons, or 1'3 per cent. of the population; and immigrants from the hills of Chutiá Nágpur make up the greater portion of this total. Though they still retain for the most part the

simplicity of their indigenous faiths, Hindu ceremonies and modes of worship are gradually making way amongst them, especially with those who have been for more than one generation settled in the District. There are no Jains or Buddhists in Maldah.

Division of the People into Town and Country.—It is true of Maldah, if of any District in Bengal, that the population is solely agricultural. There are only two collections of houses that have any pretence to be called towns, and the number of very small villages is unusually great. The District Census Compilation thus classifies the villages according to their population:—Less than 200 inhabitants, 1009; between 200 and 500, 776; between 500 and 1000, 225; between 1000 and 2000, 67; between 2000 and 3000, 14; between 3000 and 4000, 4; between 4000 and 5000, 3; between 5000 and 6000, 1; between 10,000 and 15,000, 1. The Collector states that there is not the slightest tendency on the part of the people to betake themselves to town life; but that, on the other hand, they seek as far as possible to place their houses outside municipal limits. He does not think that the towns occupy more than their proportionate share in the work of the administration. Whatever excess there may be, he would attribute rather to the proximity of the courts than to any exceptional conduct on the part of the people.

Towns and Places of Historical Importance.—Only two towns in Maldah have been formed into municipalities, English Bázár and Maldah.

ENGLISH BAZAR, or Angrazábád, the headquarters of the District, is situated on the right bank of the Mahánandá, in 25° o' 14" north latitude and 88° 11' 20" east longitude. This town consists of a series of trading villages which line the bank of the river for a considerable distance. Being situated in a mulberry-growing country, it was chosen at an early date as the site of one of the Company's factories. Stewart, in his History of Bengal (ed. 1847, p. 199), states that there was an English factory at Maldah as early as 1686, in which year all the English factories in Bengal were confiscated by order of the Nawáb Shaistá Khán. The Government records of 1748 embody a complaint from the merchant gumáshtás of the Company at Maldah, that they were ill-treated by the people of the Nawáb. In 1770 English Bázár was fixed upon for a commercial residency, and continued to be a place of importance until the discontinuance of the Company's private trade. In the early part of the century,

when Dr. Buchanan Hamilton visited the District, he was much pleased with the appearance of the place. 'There are several excellent roads, both passing through the town and in the vicinity; and in particular, there is one street, laid out by Mr. Henchman, a former resident, which is wide, straight, and regular. The whole town contains many good houses, which are more closely built than usual, and rather resemble a city of Europe than most of the country towns of Bengal.' This compliment to the town would hardly be true at the present day. The largest edifice is the Magistrate's house, which was originally built for a factory of the East India Company, in days when such buildings were intended, if need should arise, to withstand a siege. It is regularly fortified, being surrounded by a high and strong wall, with a bastion and embrasures at each of the four corners. In this wall he all the public offices of the District, as well as the private residence of the Collector.

No estimate of the population is on record prior to 1872, but the Census of that year yielded the following results:—Hindus—males, 3930; females, 3675: total, 7605. Muhammadans—males, 2506; females, 2712: total, 5218. Christians—males, 7; females, 3: total, 10. 'Others'—males, 17; females, 9: total, 26. Total of all religions—males, 6460; females, 6399: grand total, 12,859.

The municipal union of English Bázár covers 1500 acres. In the year 1869-70 the number of houses was 1462. The revenue was £328, 18s. od.;—and the expenditure was—police charges, £214, 6s. od.; establishment, £36; roads, conservancy, and contingencies, £78, 12s. od.: total, £328, 18s. od. For 1872, the year of the Census, the District Compilation gives the following statistics:—Gross municipal income, £388, 2s. od.; gross municipal expenditure, £406, 4s. od.; rate of taxation per head, 4 ánnás 9 pies, or 7½d.

MALDAH, or Old Maldah, which has given its name to the District, though it was never an English station, is situated at the confluence of the Kálindrí with the Mahánandá, in north latitude 25° 2′ 30″ and east longitude 88° 10′ 51″. It has an admirable position for river traffic, and probably rose to prosperity as the port of the Muhammadan capital of Panduah. During the last century it was the seat of thriving cotton and silk manufactures, and both the French and Dutch had factories here. The English factory, however, was always at English Bázár, lower down the Mahánandá, and on the opposite side of the river; though by some unfortunate confusion,

which is very widely spread, and has even found its way into official maps, the common name of Maldah is sometimes applied indisoriminately to both places. When Dr. Buchanan Hamilton visited the town, about 1810, it was already beginning to lose its prosperity, though yet populous, and inhabited almost entirely by traders and weavers. Many of the houses are built of brick, which is readily obtainable from the neighbouring ruins, but in other respects the place shows the signs of poverty and decay. In 1872 the population was thus returned: - Hindus - males, 1824; females, 1732; total, 3556. Muhammadans - males, 702; females, 976: total, 1678. Christians, none. 'Others'--males, 14; females, 14: total, Total of all religions-males, 2540; females, 2722; grand total, 5262. The area was returned at 1000 acres. In the year 1869-70 the number of houses was 925 (Dr. Buchanan Hamilton had estimated them in 1810 at no fewer than 3000); the revenue was £120; and the expenditure—on police charges, £68, 48. od.; on establishment, £30; on roads, conservancy, and contingencies, £21, 16s. od.—total, £120. For 1872 the District Census Compilation gives the figures thus:-Gross municipal income, £186, 12s. od.; gross municipal expenditure, £169; rate of taxation per head of the inhabitants, 5 annas 8 pies, or 81d.

Besides the two towns already mentioned, there are none in the District containing a population of more than 5000, so as to be individually mentioned in the Census Report. The following are merely marts for river traffic, and are in no other way remarkable. Rohanpur on the Purnabhabá, a short distance above its junction with the Mahananda, is a considerable depot for the grain that passes between Dinajpur and the western Districts of Behar. which may be regarded as forming one town with Gárgáribá, occupies a most important situation at the spot where the waters of the Ganges have formed a connection with the Kálindrí. good deal of its trade when the main stream of the Ganges ceased to flow near it; but now that the river has returned to its old bed, its commerce has revived. In 1875 it was described as the principal river mart in Maldah. Káliáchak, north latitude 21° 51' 15" and east longitude 88° 3' 1", and Sibganj, north latitude 24° 40' 45" and east longitude 88° 12' 1", are police stations situated on the Ganges, but neither of them possess such a share in the traffic of that river as their position might suggest. Nawabgani (not the police station of that name in the extreme south of the

District) may be practically regarded as a suburb of Maldah. Nawábganj police station, north latitude 24° 35′ 4″ and east longitude 88° 19′ 1″, lies on the Mahánandá, a little way above its junction with the Ganges, and is chiefly known for its manufacture of brass ware. Kharbá, in north latitude 25° 24′ 20″ and east longitude 88° 7′ 30″, is the most northerly police station in the District, lying in the tract of country recently transferred from Purniah. Gájol, situated in north latitude 25° 13′ 8″ and east longitude 88° 14′ 20″, is a police station in the north-east, on the main road from Maldah to Dinájpur. Gumáshtápur, or Chapái Gumáshtápur, north latitude 24° 46′ 47″ and east longitude 88° 19′ 11″, is a police station in the south-east on the Mahánandá.

THE RUINS OF GAUR AND PANDUAH.—The District of Maldah owes all its historical importance and much of its modern interest to the circumstance that it contains the sites of two successive capitals of Bengal, Gaur and Panduah. Both these cities are now almost level with the ground, and are overgrown with dense jungle; but the ruins that remain, though difficult and indeed dangerous of access, reveal sufficient traces of their former magnificence.

Gaur was the earlier of the two capitals, and in historical associations and in size by far the more important. The time of its foundation is involved in utter obscurity, and the whole course of its history down to the day when it was deserted is only vaguely to be conjectured. With regard to its origin, it is only known that it was the metropolis of Bengal under its Hindu kings. Local traditions connect some of its ruins with the oft-recurring names of Adisúr, Ballál Sen, and Lakshman. The most ancient name for the city itself would seem to be Lakshmanawati, a Sanskrit form which is usually corrupted into Laknauti. On the other hand, the name of Gaur is of primeval antiquity, as is shown by the existence and traditional dignity of the Gauriya Brahmans; but it is probable that the name was more strictly applicable to the kingdom than to the city. There are not wanting authorities to identify Gaur with places mentioned by Ptolemy and Strabo, but after all our best evidence for its antiquity is the Hindu character of the ruins, and the sanctity of its site on the holy river. Its ascertained history begins with its conquest in 1204 A.D. by the Muhammadans, who retained it as the chief seat of their power in Bengal for more than three centuries. This was the period during which were erected the numerous mosques and other Musalman buildings, which yet remain

in a tolerable state of preservation. When the Afghán kings of Bengal established their independence, they transferred the seat of government to Panduah, beyond the Mahánandá, and to build the public structures of their new capital, plundered Gaur of every public monument that could be removed. Hence it is, that while the ruins of Panduah are covered with stones bearing Hindu sculptures, scarcely a single relic has been found on the site of Gaur that could be definitely referred to a Hindu building.

Panduah in its turn was shortly deserted, and the royal residence was re-transferred to Gaur, which about this time seems to have acquired the court appellation of Janatábád, or terrestrial páradise, by which name it is mentioned in the Ain-i-Akbari. Gaur continued the capital of Bengal so long as its kings retained their independence of Dehli. During the later years of the Afghán dynasty, the seat of government was again temporarily removed to Tándán or Tángra, a sew miles to the north, but Gaur preserved the wealth and populousness of a metropolis until it finally disappeared from history. at the time when Akbar's generals reconquered Bengal. During these last years of its greatness, it suffered many vicissitudes. It was plundered by its own kings, repeatedly besieged, and more than once taken by storm. At this time, also, it would seem that the Ganges had ceased to flow along its walls, and that the general insalubrity had commenced which was destined soon to culminate in the great pestilence. Dáud Khán was the last of the Afghán dynasty. His refusal to pay homage to the Mughul emperor at Dehli led to the final subjugation of Bengal. Mana'im Khán was chosen by Akbar to lead the invading army, which was victorious in the field, and occupied for the rainy season the already decaying city of Gaur. 'Very soon a pestilence broke out amongst the troops and the inhabitants. Thousands died every day; and the living, tired with burying the dead, threw them into the river without distinction of Hindu and Muhammadan.'1 Mana 'im Khan himself. who had resolved to maintain Gaur as the seat of government, and to restore its former magnificence, fell a victim to the common contagion. From henceforth the name of Gaur is scarcely to be found in the Muhammadan annals, and it is supposed that the city was never re-occupied after this depopulation. The date of the catastrophe, to which it would be hard to find a parallel in the history of civilisation, was 1575 A.D. This is the received account of the

¹ Stewart's History of Bengal, ed. 1847, p. 103.

desertion of Gaur; but it may be mentioned that Dr. Buchanan Hamilton totally discredits the story of the pestilence. He states that the Mughul viceroys of Bengal used occasionally to reside at Gaur; and that as late as 1639, Sujá Sháh, the brother of Aurangzeb, added buildings to the city. This prince made Rájmahal the capital of Bengal, and from this time, according to Dr. B. Hamilton, dates the desolation of Gaur. He thinks that 'the city then went to instant ruin, not from any great or uncommon calamity, but merely from the removal of the seat of government.'

The ruins have been a quarry not only for the brick houses of the neighbouring towns and villages, but also for the palaces of Murshids-It is said that the commercial residency at English Bázár was constructed with bricks from Gaur. But little care has been taken even of the numerous mosques, which even when in ruins are in most parts of India sufficiently supported out of their ancient endowments. Slabs of black marble have been carried off from the tombs of Afghán kings to adorn modern monuments in Murshídábád and Calcutta. The memory of the great pestilence, which some writers have identified with the first outbreak of cholera in India. more than the actual unhealthiness of the neighbourhood, has kept back the advance of cultivation. The jungle still reigns supreme over the half-obliterated ruins of walls, forts, and palaces; and tigers, rock pythons, and pelicans are stated to be now the chief inhabitants of Gaur. Within the last few years, indeed, the neighbouring villagers have availed themselves of the extraordinary fertility of the soil, and it has been discovered that a top-dressing of brickdust makes firstrate arable land.

The first person who devoted any attention to the ruins of Gaur was Mr. H. Creighton, a gentleman engaged in the manufacture of indigo in the neighbourhood, as agent for Mr. Charles Grant. He thoroughly explored the entire site, and made an accurate survey of the locality in 1801, as well as drawings of a number of the public buildings. He also formed a collection of all loose stones that contained sculptures or inscriptions. The survey and the drawings were published by Mr. Moffat of Calcutta, but it does not appear that any letterpress accompanied the work. This survey by Mr. Creighton was republished in the Revenue Surveyor's Report of Maldah, dated 1854. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton visited the spot about 1810, and has left an elaborate description of the ruins as they then appeared, from which the following account

is mainly condensed. It must be remembered, however, that dilapidation, partly by natural causes, but still more from the hand of man, has rapidly advanced since that time. Dr. B. Hamilton states that the ruins were in a far more perfect state when Mr. Creighton made his drawings, only ten years before, than when he saw them; and there is every reason to believe that the mischief has continued to go on since that time with at least equal speed.

The city with its suburbs covered an area variously estimated at from twenty to thirty square miles. The situation is somewhat elevated, and the soil is clay, well suited to preserve the houses from inundations. The dimensions of the city proper, i.e. the part within the great continuous embankment, are a length of about 71 miles from north to south, and a breadth varying from one to two miles, which would give an area of nearly thirteen square miles. The west face of the city was throughout washed by the main stream of the Ganges, for we are certainly justified in assuming that what is now the channel of the little Bhágirathí was formerly occupied by the entire waters of the great river. The eastern side was protected partly by the Mahananda, and yet more effectually by the perennial swamps which intervene between that river and the embankments But little protection was needed to the south, for the junction a little lower down of the Mahananda with the Ganges would always have prevented an invader from choosing such a circumscribed base of operations. On the north, which was the most accessible quarter, an artificial bulwark was required. A line of fortification about six miles in length extends in an irregular curve from the old channel of the Bhágirathí at Sonátalá to near the Mahananda at Bholahat. This rampart is about 100 feet wide at its base, and is said to be mainly composed of brick. At each end, where it touches on the rivers, it is cut off by a ditch 120 feet in width. At the north-east part of this curve is a gate, protected by a strong projecting outwork in the form of a quadrant, through which a high embanked road passes north and south. contains several tanks and the monument of a Muhammadan saint. It seems to have been the station of the police officer who had charge of this part of the city. The parganá or Fiscal Division which extends over this portion of the runs is still called Kotwalf. Near the north-east corner of the outwork, at the confluence of the Kalindri with the Mahananda, stands a minar or tower, said to have been erected by a merchant in the days of old. It has

now fallen to ruin, but yet presents a striking object as viewed from the ferry of Nimásarái. To the north of the rampart, and therefore entirely apart from the city, are two isolated ruins, which are connected with the names of Adisur and Ballal Sen, early Hindu kings of Bengal. The first has been levelled with the ground, and the plough has passed over it; but Dr. B. Hamilton observed that a considerable field was covered with fragments of bricks, and on the surface he found a block of carved granite, which seemed to have formed part of an entablature. Close by are the ruins of the palace where Ballal Sen, the successor of Adistir, is said to have resided. It consisted, like the palace near Dacca, of a square of about 400 yards, surrounded by a ditch. Behind the rampart, which has been already described, lay the northern suburb of the city. It is of vast extent, and is likened by Dr. B. Hamilton to the quadrant of a circle with a radius of 6000 yards. It does not appear to have been at any time thickly inhabited. The eastern portion is now occupied with marshes, but the western portion near the Bhagirathi is enclosed by earthworks, and contains several public works. It is here that is situated the large Sigar Dight, the most celebrated artificial piece of water in Bengal. Its dimensions are almost 1600 yards from north to south, and more than 800 from east to west. The banks are built of brick, and the water remains pure and sweet to the present day. This was no doubt a Hindu structure; and in the neighbourhood are the two most frequented places of Hindu devotion in the District. The banks, however, are now occupied with Muhammadan buildings, of which the most conspicuous is the tomb of Mukhdam Shah Jalal, a saint who is related to have possessed great influence during the reigns of the early Musalman kings of Bengal. Near this tomb is a small mosque. Both these buildings are supported by an endowment, and tolerably well cared for. On the side of the Bhagirathi, opposite this suburb. at a market-place now called Sadullapur, is the chief descent (chdt) to the holy stream. To this spot the dead bodies of Hindus are still brought from great distances to be burned.

Immediately to the south lies the city itself, which towards each suburb and along the Ganges has been defended by a strong rampart and ditch. On the side that faces the Mahánandá the rampart has been double, and in most parts there have been two immense ditches, and in some parts three. No doubt these works were designed as much for embankments and drains as for fortifications.

In the Ain-i-Akbari they are called dams, and are said to have been sometimes breached by the inundations, when the city would be laid under water. The base of the outer embankment was in one place measured by Mr. Creighton, and found to be 150 feet thick. By far the greater portion of the thirteen square miles thus enclosed appears to have been thickly inhabited. Small tanks, such as are found in Bengali towns, are everywhere to be seen, as well as many foundations of houses, and the remains of small places of worship. In the southern part there have been numerous roads. raised very high, and so wide that in many places small buildings of brick were erected on their sides. These were probably chapels or other places of public resort; while the dwelling-houses were huddled together along the sides of the tanks. There have been many bridges, but all small and clumsy. Somewhat to the south, on the bank of the Bhagirathi, the citadel or kila was placed. It extends about a mile in length from north to south, and is from 600 to 800 vards broad. The rampart which encircles this area has been very strongly built of brick, with many flanking angles and round bastions at the corners. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton had no doubt that it was a work of the Muhammadan period. Outside the northern entrance have been several gates, which he concluded must have been intended for triumphal arches, for they did not appear to be connected with the remains of any walls. The palace, in the southeast corner of the citadel, was surrounded by a wall of brick, about forty feet high and eight feet thick, with an ornamented cornice. the interior the remains of several cross walls are visible, but the arrangement of the apartments can no longer be ascertained. deed, almost the whole site is now under cultivation. A little to the north of the palace are the royal tombs, where Husáin Sháh and other independent kings of Bengal lie buried. The building has been almost entirely destroyed, but it had evidently considerable pretensions to elegance. The floor was paved with stone, and the graves were covered with slabs of polished hornblende, the substitute in Bengal for black marble. Not one of these stones, however, now remains. The area of the citadel also contains two mosques. the larger of which has fallen into ruins. The smaller, which was built by Husain Shah, is in good preservation, being supported by an adequate endowment. This is the mosque known as Kadam Rásúl, which Mr. Creighton in his survey describes as containing the print of a foot in stone; but Dr. B. Hamilton merely states

that it was erected in honour of the feet of the Prophet. Stewart, however, in his History of Bengal (ed. 1847, p. 76), states that this mosque was built by Sultán Nazrat Sháh, the son and successor of Husain Shah. He adds that the inscription, which is perfect, fixes the date at A.H. 939, or A.D. 1542. Just outside the east wall of the citadel stands a lofty tower of brick, up the centre of which runs a winding stair leading to a chamber with four windows at the summit. It is known as Pir Asa Munara, but no object is assigned for its erection by the natives. Dr. B. Hamilton. who likens it to the Monument of London on a small scale, conjectures from the name that it may have been the abode of a hermit of the Simeon Stylites type. The Revenue Surveyor briefly terms it a telegraph tower. Mr. Fergusson, in his History of Architecture,1 gives a woodcut of it, after a photograph by Mr. J. H. Ravenshaw, C.S., and appends the following description:—'One of the most interesting of the antiquities of the place is a mindr, standing in (?) the fort. For two-thirds of the height it is a polygon of twelve sides; above that circular, until it attains the height of 84 feet. The door is at some distance from the ground, and altogether it looks more like an Irish round tower than any other example known, though it is most improbable that there should be any connection between the two forms. It is evidently a pillar of victory, a Jaya Stambha, such as the Kútali Minár at Dehli. There is, or was, an inscription on this monument, which ascribed its erection to Firoz Sháh.' About a mile and a half due north of the citadel is a space of 600 square yards, bounded by a rampart and ditch, known as the flower-garden. South-east of this, and not quite a mile north-east from the citadel, is the Pijáswári, or the abode of thirst, a tank of considerable dimensions, but containing very bad. brackish water. With this name is connected the tradition that condemned criminals were allowed nothing to drink but the water of this tank, and thus perished of thirst. In the Ain-i-Akbari, the court historian takes credit to his master Akbar for having abolished this inhuman practice. There are many other large tanks within the city walls, some of which contain tame crocodiles, which are fed by the resident fakirs. Of these the finest is the Chhota Ságar Díghl, which only in size is inferior to the tank of the same name in the north suburb. Between the Pijaswari and the citadel is situated the Great Golden Mosque, which is generally reckoned

¹ Ed. 1867, vol. ii. pp. 658, 659.

as the grandest building in Gaur. Dr. B. Hamilton, however, thought that its mean proportions made it very unsightly. It is about 180 feet from north to south, 60 feet from east to west, and 20 feet high to the top of the cornice. It is a perfect parallelopiped without projection or recess, except that it was formerly covered with thirty-three domes. The only other structure of interest is the fine central gate in the south wall of the city. It is called the Kotwálí Darwázá, presumably from the circumstance that the superintendent of the police was stationed there. This gate is described as being still in good preservation.

Southwards from this gate stretches an immense suburb as far as Pukhariyá, a distance of about seven miles. Its width is comparatively small, but it bears abundant traces of having been at one time densely occupied. Dr. B. Hamilton thought that it had resembled the straggling line of villages which generally fringe the main roads issuing out of a large town, and that in its eastern part there had been many gardens and country houses belonging to the wealthier citizens. Its name was Firozipur, so called from Firoz Shah, the second of the two kings of Bengal who bore that name. Towards the east and south there was an embankment and ditch, probably designed to ward off the floods, which have now created large marshes in that direction. This southern suburb contains a good number of public buildings. The most prominent among these are the Lesser Golden Mosque, which Dr. B. Hamilton describes as 'one of the neatest pieces of architecture in the whole place,' and the tomb of Niámat-ullá Wáli. This person was the Pir or spiritual guide of Sujá Sháh, and his monument, which is small and clumsy, is to this day carefully tended by his descendants. They own a considerable estate, which was granted as an endowment, and spend a great part of the income therefrom in promiscuous charity.

There are in Gaur many Arabic inscriptions written in the Taghra character. Unfortunately Dr. B. Hamilton could find no person who was able to decipher them. It is evident that they might afford the means of settling many doubtful points in the chronology of the kings of Bengal.

Such are the principal features of the ruins of Gaur, which has clearly been a great city. No doubt many of the accounts of its vast population are merely Oriental exaggerations. But even according to Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, who places the inhabited area

at twenty square miles, only two-thirds of Major Rennell's estimate, it would have contained over six or seven hundred thousand souls.

PANDUAH, or Peruah, as it is commonly but less correctly called, is in all respects less noteworthy than Gaur, though it contains some remarkable specimens of early Muhammadan architecture. Its comparatively small historical importance has given rise to more than one error. The maps scarcely mark the place at all, and uniformly give some one of the corrupt modes of spelling the name. Hence, when a mention of the place is found in history, it is often confused with the better known but much less important place of the same name in Hugh District. To avoid this difficulty, General Cunningham has proposed that it should be known as Hazrat Panduah. The proximity of Gaur has also overshadowed Panduah, so that the antiquities of the latter place have been sometimes attributed in their entirety to the former.

Panduah is situated about twenty miles from Gaur, and six from Maldah, in a north-easterly direction from both. It is near no river. and does not possess any apparent advantages of site. appearance in history is in the year 1353 A.D., when Iliás Khwajah Sultan, the first independent king of Bengal, is said to have transferred his capital from Gaur to Panduah. It has been supposed that this king and his successors, who with difficulty repelled the Dehli emperor, were influenced in their desertion of Gaur by strategic reasons. Panduah was not accessible by water, and was probably then as now protected by almost impenetrable jungles. It is not probable that the vast Hindu community of traders and artisans also left their homes at Gaur, but merely that the court was removed. This would explain both the smaller number of ruined dwellinghouses at Panduah, as well as the superior sanctity in which this place is held by the Muhammadans. The court name for Panduah was Firozábád, which during this period regularly makes its appearance on the coins, whereas that of Lakhnauti (Gaur) disappears. The seat of Government remained here during the reigns of five successive monarchs, when it was permanently re-transferred to Gaur. It is probable, however, that Panduah, though its name is not again mentioned in history, maintained its splendour for some time, and was a favourite country resort for royalty.

The history of Panduah is short, and the topography, so far as it has been explored, is equally simple. No survey has ever been taken of the site; and even Dr. Buchanan Hamilton found himself

unable to penetrate through the dense jungle beyond the beaten track. The following description is condensed from his account of the place, contained in his Ms. notes on the District of Dinájpur, which in his time included this part of Maldah, whereas Gaur was then within the District of Purniah.

A road paved with brick, from twelve to fifteen feet wide, and not very straight (the present high road from Maldah to Dinájpur), seems to have passed through the entire length of the town. It stretches nearly north and south, and is about six miles in length. From the heaps of bricks on both sides, it would appear to have been a regular street, lined with brick houses, of which the foundations and the tanks can still be traced in many places. Almost all the surviving monuments are on the borders of this road. Near the middle is a bridge of three arches, partly constructed of stone, which has been thrown over a rivulet. It is rudely built, and of no great size; and, as is the case with all the other monuments in Panduah, the materials have manifestly come from the Hindu temples of Gaur, as they still show sculptured figures of men and animals. At the northern end of the street are evident traces of a rampart, and the passage through is called Garhdwar, or the gate of the fortress. At the south end are many foundations, which have also probably belonged to a gate, but the forest is so impenetrable that the wall cannot be traced. B. Hamilton was of opinion that in general the town extended only a little way either east or west from the main street, but that a scattered suburb reached in a southerly direction as far as Maldah.

On approaching the ruins from the south, the first two objects that attract attention are the monuments of Mukhdam Sháh Jalál and his grandson Kútab Sháh, who were the two most distinguished religious personages under the early Muhammadan kings of Bengal. Numerous pilgrims repair hither at all seasons and from all parts of Bengal, especially with the object of laying their own bones near these holy men. The monument of Mukhdam is chiefly frequented at one great annual meld, and that of Kútab at four smaller meetings (ulos); but all religious mendicants (fukirs), at whatever time they come, are entertained for three days. Both are supported by considerable endowments, out of which the buildings are kept in repair. and a numerous establishment of servants is maintained, who form the present population of Panduah. The lands in this District which belong to Mukhdam are known as Báis-hazárí, or twentytwo thousand, from containing that number of bighas, and have always been managed by a person appointed by Government. The lands of Kutab are under the management of his descendants, and are called Chhái-hazári, as containing 6000 bighás. The monument of Mukhdam is reached first. The entrance is pointed out by a plain door of brick and stone. Some distance behind lies a village composed of about 100 huts, which are occupied by the attendants; and next come some rude sheds, in which pilgrims find shelter. The monument itself consists of a small square area. entered at the south-east corner. To the right of the door is a little chamber, in which the saint used to perform his devotions. On the west is a small plain mosque, and the two remaining sides are occupied by a refectory and a tank. The buildings are kept in fair order, and the materials have evidently been taken from Gaur. From three different inscriptions, it would appear that the buildings were erected or repaired in A.H. 1075 or A.D. 1664, A.H. 1084 or A.D. 1673, and A.H. 1093 or A.D. 1682. The tomb of the saint is not here, but at Gaur, as has been mentioned in the description of that city; but this is the spot where his memory is most honoured. About a quarter of a mile farther is the village belonging to the attendants of Kutab, who are fully as numerous as those of Mukhdam, while the accommodation for strangers is greater. The monument occupies a large space on the west of the road. In the centre are the remains of Kutab's dwelling house, now in ruins. great extent, however, fully bears out the tradition of the natives, that the saint was as great a man as the temporal king. Some of the apartments are lined with tiles, which yet retain their enamel of various bright colours. South of the house is an irregular quadrangle, enclosed by a brick wall about 100 yards in diameter. On one side is a square tank, edged with cut stone, and on another a ruinous mosque; while at the south-west corner are the tombs of Kutab himself and his father, who was also a saint of great repute. Dr. B. Hamilton did not think it proper to examine the tombs closely, as they were draped with a canopy of white cotton cloth. On a small brick building near is an inscription, bearing date A.H. 886 or A.D. 1481. To the north of the house stands a small mosque, called the Golden, an epithet which may be derived from its sanctity. It is surrounded by a brick wall, in the east side of which is a gate faced with hewn granite. The walls of the mosque are also of granite; but the roof, which consists of ten domes, is made of brick. The pulpit (mambir) is rudely hewn out of stone. The whole, however,

was described in 1808 as rapidly hastening to ruin, for no pains were taken to remove the pipal and banian trees that have sprung up in every crevice. An inscription records that the mosque and gateway were erected in honour of Kútab Sháh in A.H. 993 or A.D. 1585. This date is remarkable as being just ten years after the date assigned for the desolation of Gaur. It proves that this mosque, though, like all the other buildings at Panduah, constructed from the fragments of Hindu temples, was not erected in the interval of time when Panduah superseded Gaur as the capital of Bengal, but at a period subsequent to the Mughul conquest of the Afghán dynasty. Immediately north of this mosque, and on the same side of the street, is another mosque, commonly known as Eklákhi, from having been constructed at a cost of a lákh of rupces, or £10,000. Though the materials are chiefly brick, it was, in Dr. B. Hamilton's opinion, the handsomest building in the place. It forms a square, with a frontage of 80 feet, roofed by one dome, with a small turret at each corner. The walls outwardly have been ornamented with carved tiles, and the dome within has been neatly plastered. It is lighted by three small doors, one in each side, and internally forms an octagon. It is evidently intended as the mausoleum of the three personages whose tombs occupy the middle of the floor. There is no inscription to serve as a guide, but tradition relates that they are the graves of Ghias-ud-din II., the third Muhammadan king of Bengal, and his two sons.

About two miles beyond the monument of Chias-ud-din is the tomb of his father Sikandra (Secunder), the greatest of the monarchs who made Panduah their capital. The tomb forms a part of the great mosque called Adinah Masjid, which is by far the most celebrated building in this part of India. It stands on the east side of the main street, between the street and a large tank now choked up with weeds. Though partly in ruins, it is yet the most remarkable example which exists of Pathán architecture, and as such has been noticed in Mr. Fergusson's History of Architecture. Dr. B. Hamilton has devoted no less than ten pages to a minute description of the building, which would be unintelligible apart from the plans and drawings which were intended to illustrate it. The following account of this elaborate and highly-ornamented structure must therefore be very brief. It is a quadrangular building, consisting chiefly of cloisters, which surround a central area of the same form. It extends nearly 500 feet from north to south,

and 300 feet from east to west. According to Mr. Fergusson, the ground plan and the dimensions are exactly similar to those of the great mosque at Damascus. The east side, through which the building is entered by an insignificant door, is 500 feet long and 38 feet wide between the walls. This space is subdivided by means of transverse brick walls and stone pillars into no less than 127 squares, each of which is covered by a small dome. The northern and southern sides are constructed on the same pattern, but, being shorter, contain only 39 domes each. The height of all three is about twenty feet, including a broad ornamented cornice; towards the quadrangle they open inwards with arches, which correspond to the squares. On the outside are many small windows, highly decorated with carved tiles disposed in arches. The western side of the building, that which faces towards Mecca, is composed of a central apartment, the mosque proper, and two wings. The mosque is 64 feet from east to west, 32 feet from north to south, and 62 feet in height from the floor to the centre of the dome by which it is covered. It contains the usual niches on the western wall, towards which the worshippers turned their faces, and a pulpit. These are polished and highly carved. The southern wing is similar in design to the other sides of the building, and contains 90 domes. Its west front, however, is closed by a blank wall, in which are niches corresponding to the fifteen rows of arches which here terminate the cloisters. In this wing the common people worshipped. The northern wing only differs in so far as it contains a raised platform for the roval worshippers. This platform, called the Badshah-ka takht, is sunported upon thick columns, and elevated about eight feet from the floor. It is 40 feet wide and 80 feet long, and covered by domes of no greater height than those over the rest of the building. The adjacent wall contains four niches and two doors, which are minutely carved and ornamented with passages from the Kurán. doors, through which is the only entrance to the platform, communicate directly with the chamber in which is the tomb of Sikandra, on the same level with the platform. This chamber is 38 feet square, and has been covered by nine domes, of an even height with all the others. The grave is in the centre, composed of brick, and without ornament; but it now lies empty, having been opened in search of treasure. The outer front of this west side. though rendered irregular by the projection of the tomb, is the most entire portion of the building, and has been the most highly ornamented. It bears an inscription which fixes the date for the erection of the building by Sikandra at A.H. 707, or 1307 A.D. (This is the date given by Dr. B. Hamilton, but Stewart's History of Bengal places the reign of this monarch between 1358 and 1367 A.D.) The stone-work, which reaches 11 feet high, is quite plain. The brickwork surmounting it, which raises the entire height to 23 feet 5 inches, is subdivided into minute portions, and most elaborately carved. The doors and windows on this side, which are of stone, are the parts of the whole which, in the opinion of Dr. B. Hamilton, have been executed in the best taste. They are of very different styles, having apparently been taken from different Hindu buildings. carvings of the human figure upon the materials have been carefully obliterated by the Muhammadan mason, but yet traces of them can everywhere be detected on a close inspection. There is no calcareous marble anywhere in the building. The rougher parts are of granite, out of a single block of which some of the pillars supporting the domes are hewn. The more polished parts are made of indurated potstone impregnated with hornblende. The total number of domes is variously given by different authorities, but cannot be much less than 400. It is the great number of small domes which forms the peculiar feature of the Pathán architecture of this period.

The only other ruin of note in Panduah is the Satásgarh or Sixty Towers, which is said to have been the palace of the king. It lies about a mile to the eastward of the main street, opposite the Adinah Mosque, altogether enveloped in the most dense jungle. About half-way are the remains of an earthen rampart, which from the position of the ditch on the western side was probably a fortification to protect the palace. At the Satásgarh itself little is to be seen beyond a large tank, on the banks of which are numerous small buildings, connected with each other, which have evidently been used as baths. The dimensions of the tank are longest from north to south,—a circumstance which, combined with local tradition, points to the conclusion that it is a Hindu structure. This leads Dr. B. Hamilton to quote with apparent approval the tradition which connects the original foundation of the town with a mythical Pandu Rájá, who gave his name to the place.

TANDAN, Tondah, or Tángrá, the capital of Bengal after the decadence of Gaur, was also situated within the present District of Maldah. The history of this city is obscure, and its very site has

not been accurately determined. According to Stewart (History of. Bengal, ed. 1847, p. 95), Sulaimán Sháh Karáni, the last but one of the Afghan kings of Bengal, moved the seat of government to Tándán A.H. 972 or A.D. 1564, eleven years before the final depopulation of Gaur. Though never a populous city, Tándán seems to have continued a favourite residence for the Mughul governors of Bengal until the middle of the following century. In the year A.D. 1660, the rebel Sujá Sháh, when hard pressed by Mír Jumlá, the general of Aurangzeb, retreated from Rajmahal to Tandan, and restored the fortifications of the latter city. In its neighbourhood was fought the decisive battle in which Sujá Sháh was finally defeated. After this date Tándán is not mentioned in history, for the course of events henceforth drew the Mughul governors towards Dacca. It is certain that Tándán was in the immediate neighbourhood of Gaur, and indeed was originally little more than a new palace or country residence for the king; but no ruins now remain to mark the precise site. It lay to the west of Gaur, beyond the Bhágirathí. Major Rennel states that it was situated on the road leading to Rajmahal, some few miles farther up the Ganges than Gaur; Dr. Buchanan Hamilton places it in thind Kaliachak, to the south-west of the ruins of Gaur, following the survey of Gaur made by Mr. Creighton. Neither the Revenue Surveyor nor the modern maps make any mention of the place. There can be little doubt that when Gaur was rendered defenceless by the great change in the channel of the Ganges, it was found necessary to move the royal residence to the new bank of the river. Hence the origin of Tandan, which was naturally deserted when the seat of government was transferred to the extreme east of Bengal, and perhaps swept away by subsequent changes in the course of the Ganges.

VILLAGE OFFICIALS.—In connection with the indigenous agency employed in taking the Census of 1872, a report was called for by Government upon the present condition of the old village officials. The following paragraphs on the subject are taken almost verhatim from the information furnished on that occasion by the Magistrate of Maldah, dated January 1873:—

MANDALS.—'The system of mandals and satums has existed in this District from the time of the Muhammadan conquest. A satum is a head rayat. At the present day every village has a mandal, and in large villages there are two or three satums under him. The mandal is appointed by the zamindár, with the concurrence of the VOL VIL.

rayats. He usually retains his office for life, but is liable to be dismissed at the pleasure of the zamindar. The office is not strictly hereditary, but a preference is usually given to a relative of the late mandal, if he be otherwise eligible. The mandal still occupies an important position in the village, but in the more civilised portion of the District his influence is now much less than it used to be, and his area of authority more circumscribed. The villages in these parts have become independent of his control, and his position has been undermined by the increasingly centralized powers of the samindars, and the growing accessibility of the courts of justice. In the more remote and less populous parts of the District, such as the Barendra zamin to the east of the Mahananda, the mandals continue to hold their former position. This is especially the case among the Palís in tháná Gájol, with whom the headmen or sardars occupy to the present day an acknowledged place in the village community.'

PANCHAYAT.—'There is no established village institution such as the panchdyat. A gathering, however, analogous to the panchdyat is convened both among Hindus and Muhammadans, whenever occasion arises, e.g. to settle a disputed question of caste. The members of such a gathering are selected by the parties interested, entirely out of their own castes.'

PATWARIS.—' Patwaris or village accountants are not to be found as part of an existing system. They have long since given way to the zamindari servants, the gumáshta and the tahsildar. Since 1851 the zamindars have discontinued the practice of filing returns of patwaris. The term patwari, however, is still known and recognised throughout the District. It has become synonymous with tahsildar, and in the north of Maldah is applied to the person whose duty it is to collect the rents for the zamindar. The same person is usually called tahsildar in the southern parts, and gumáshta in the central parts of the District. He is solely a servant of the zamindar, and is liable to be dismissed at pleasure. The office is not hereditary, and a monthly salary is usually attached to it. The duties are simply to collect the rent from the rayats, and to make it over to the ndib. These patwaris do not belong to any particular class or caste.'

Bakhshis.—'No traces of pháridárs, faujdárs, or bakhshis as village officials are to be found in Maldah, but it is stated that the name "bakhshi" was in use until a few years ago. It was applied to

the officer who collected the town chaukiddri or police rates, and who performed, under the title of sadr bakkski, certain police duties now entrusted to the town head constable.'

FAIRS OR RELIGIOUS GATHERINGS.—The following is a list of the chief fairs or melds held in the District. Minor articles, such as brass ware, furniture, toys, and various eatables, are sold at each of them, but in all the religious element predominates. (1) Rámkail medi is held within the precincts of old Gaur, in the immediate neighbourhood of the great Ságar Díghl, on the last day of Jaisthá, corresponding to the month of lune, in every year. Pilgrims come hither from all parts of Maldah, and also from the neighbouring Districts. They are mostly Hindus of the Vaishnay sect, and it is estimated that their number may amount to as many as 30,000. The ceremonies consist of performing worship and giving feasts in honour of Krishna. Advantage is also taken of this occasion by the Vaishnavs to get married in strict accordance with the rites prescribed by Chaitanya. The gathering continues for five days, but cholera and fever rarely break out at this place. It has been suggested that this exemption from disease may be due to the existence of the large tanks near, which to this day contain abundance of wholesome water. (2) Kuris meld is held at Gárgáribá, on the bank of the Ganges, twelve days after the dol játrá, or swinging festival, in the month of Phalgun, corresponding to February or March. The assemblage, which lasts for five days, consists of about twelve or fourteen thousand persons, mostly Hindus, who come for the sole purpose of bathing in the Ganges. (3) Kánsát meld is held at the same time as the above, and for the same purpose, at the village of Kánsát, on the Ganges, in the south-west of the District. It is attended by from eight to ten thousand Hindus, and lasts for two days. In 1868 cholera broke out severely at this gathering, and was thence widely disseminated throughout the District. (4) Tulsi Bihar meld is held in Jangal-Tuta, a place enveloped in jungle, as its name imports, some ten miles to the south of English Bázár. The date is the last day of Baisákh, corresponding to April, and the attendance is from three to four thousand, consisting entirely of Vaishnavs. The ceremonies performed are connected with the earliest legends of Hinduism, and are of a singular nature. place is inhabited by a small colony of Brahmans called Thakuranjis, who dress themselves in women's clothes and observe celibacy. They consider themselves to be gopinis or milkmaids, and in that

character worship Krishná as their incarnate lover. They celebrate their marriage with Krishná once every year, which gives occasion to the melá. Fever cases often occur here; and in 1869 a good many lives were lost from cholera. (5) Panduah or Peruah is the scene of a Muhammadan melá, which takes place in the last week of Kartik, corresponding to November; but after every three years the melá day retrogrades one month. It is frequented by about five or six thousand persons, almost all Musalmans. The ceremonies here performed consist of the offering of fatihas, or prayers for defunct persons, combined with the distribution of alms and food to the fakirs who assemble on the occasion. The gathering lasts for five days. In 1868, when cholera was raging in the District, it received a fresh impetus at this melá, and was thence directly conveyed into the Maldah jail. (6) Powál melá is held at Bámangolá, in the north-east of the District, in the month of Chaitra, corresponding to March. Its institution is of recent origin, and the ceremonies performed are the same as at Panduah. It lasts for three days, and is attended by about 2000 Muhammadans. There are also smaller fairs held at Sádullápur, a celebrated burial ghát on the Bhágirathí, in March, and at Rathbárí in May.

THE MATERIAL CONDITION OF THE PEOPLE is described by the Collector as varying very much in the different portions of the District. To the westward of the Mahananda, and along both banks of that river, the cultivators are very prosperous. The cultivation of the mulberry is extremely profitable; and the mango orchards also, which abound in this part, help considerably towards paying the rent. On the eastern side of the Mahananda. and especially towards the north, the population is chiefly composed of semi-Hinduized aboriginals, Palís and Kochs. Their houses are built of grass mat, and are rarely thick enough together to constitute a village. There is little doubt that such wants as they have are abundantly satisfied in the jungle, and they are a contentedlooking race. To the south-east of the District, on the borders of Rajshahi, the villages become larger, and the cultivation is better, but the level of comfort is not equal to that in the tract first described.

THE ORDINARY DRESS of a well-to-do shopkeeper consists of (1) a dhuti and (2) a chidar, both composed of cotton or coarse silk, (3) a gildph or coarse wrapper for cold weather, (4) a pirán, a cloth of native pattern, or shirt, (5) a gámchá or towel, (6) jutá or a pair of shoes, and (7) an umbrella. This is the outdoor costume; but

indoors nothing is worn but the dhuti and a mild or set of wooden beads, confined to Hindus. The dress of a well-to-do cultivator is similar to the above, but throughout of a cheaper description. He has not got the pirdn, the shoes, or the umbrella, but in addition he wears a pagri or coarse cotton head-dress. The dress of the women is uniformly the sdrl, a cotton or silk robe with a red or black border. The use of gold and silver ornaments is much on the increase; and in the more prosperous part of the District it has now become rare to see a brass ornament on the person of a middle-class woman, which was not the case some few years ago.

DWELLINGS.—The building materials used depend upon the facility with which bricks can be obtained from the ruins of Gaur. For example, in the towns of English Bázár or Maldah, the house of a well-to-do shopkeeper will usually be built of brick. It will contain two or three rooms, and in addition a cooking hut, walled with mats and roofed with thatch, the whole surrounded with a screen of matting. The area of such a structure would not altogether be more than 20 feet square. In other parts of the District the house of such a person would be entirely constructed of grass mats; the number of rooms being the same, but each independent of the other. The dwelling of a respectable cultivator is the same as in the last case, except that he has rarely more than two rooms or ghars, together with a cooking shed and a shed for cattle, often without walls. The materials used for making the mats and screens and for sewing them together are khar grass, bamboos, reeds, jute and hempen string. The mats for the outer screen are of bamboo framework, with grass interwoven. The inside house mats are woven on split bamboo. The fineness of the work and texture entirely depend upon the taste of the occupant. The roofs are thatched with grass. Earth is but little used for building; and houses with mud walls are rarely to be found anywhere in the District.

THE FURNITURE in the house of a well-to-do shopkeeper or of a peasant does not differ materially from that which has been already described in other volumes; most fully in the Account of Dacca, pp. 77, 78.

THE FOOD of the people consists mainly of rice, varied with various kinds of pulses and other country vegetables, fish, spices, etc. Milk is not much consumed in the poorer families, even

where a cow is kept, but is usually sold. The children get various sweetened preparations of rice. There is no difference between the description of food consumed by a shopkeeper and that consumed by a peasant, but the food of the latter is coarser in quality, and, excepting rice, less in quantity. The average monthly living expenses of a well-to-do household consisting of five persons, three adults and two children, which follow, are estimated on the supposition that everything is bought in the bizir, but of course the cultivators obtain almost all the articles by their own labour. Rice, 2 maunds or 164 lbs., Rs. 5 or 10s.; dal or pulse, 12 sers or 24 lbs., R. 1 or 2s.; salt, 2 sers or 4 lbs., 4 únnás or 6d.; oil, 6 sers or 12 lbs., Rs. 2 or 4s.; vegetables, R. 1 or 2s.; fish, R. 1 or 2s.; spices, 4 ánnás or 6d.; pán and betel-nut, 8 ánnás or 1s.; tobacco, 8 ánnás or 1s.; fuel, Rs. 1/8 or 3s.; extras, Rs. 2 or 4s.—total average monthly expenses, excluding clothes, Rs. 15/8 or £1, 11s. od.

AGRICULTURE: RICE.—The staple crop here as elsewhere in Bengal is rice, of which the following are the four chief varieties:-(1) Boro, sown in November and December, and reaped in April and May. It is grown on low-lying and marshy lands, and requires to be transplanted two or three times before coming to perfection. The grain is coarse, and chiefly used by the cultivators themselves. (2) Bhadai, sown in April and May, and reaped in August and September. It is sown broadcast on high lands and on the banks of rivers. It requires no irrigation, nor is it transplanted, but it must be weeded when about five inches high. This crop, which is identical with the dus of Eastern Bengal, is largely grown in all parts of the District. The grain is coarse, and consumed by the poorer classes. (3) Aman, sown in June and July, and reaped in November and December. It is sown in low-lying lands which go under water during the rains, and does not require transplanting. It is extensively cultivated throughout the District, and together with the haimantik forms the main harvest on which depends the food supply of the year. It may probably be identified not so much with the dman as with the kartik said of Eastern Bengal. (4) Haimantik. This crop requires transplanting, and more resembles the ordinary dman. It is sown in June or July, transplanted in July or August, and harvested in November and December.

The quality of the rice grown does not appear to have improved of late years, nor has any encouragement in this direction been offered on the part of the landlords. A great extension, however,

of the area under rice has of late taken place, and this not at the expense of other cultivation. Much of pargund Shersháhábád, in the neighbourhood of Gaur, which was nothing but jungle twenty years ago, now produces good rice crops. The same may be said of many other parts of the District, notably in thánás Gumáshtápur and Nawábganj, to the south-west.

The names for rice in its various stages, from the seed until cooked, are-bihan, the seed; phiil, plants about a foot high, ready for transplanting; gambhar, when the plants are sufficiently advanced to throw out ears, but the ears have not quite come; phulan, when the ears have appeared, but there is no grain or milk within them ; dudhi-khotan, when milk grows in the ears; dhan or paddy, when the grain is ripening; pakkil dhin, when the grain is ready for reaping. It is then cut and brought to the threshingfloor, over which it is scattered, and threshed out by oxen. The paddy, or grain with the husk on it, is next dried, boiled twice, and husked in the dhenki, or common rice-cleaning machine, cleaned rice is again boiled before being eaten, when it is known as bhat. There is another process preliminary to husking sometimes adopted, by which, instead of being boiled, the paddy is soaked for a day and a night before being husked in the dhenki. It is then called ároá

The various sorts of cooked preparations made from rice are-Chird. The paddy is first soaked in water for twenty four hours, or boiled. When taken out of the water, it is partially parched, and then flattened out by being pounded in the allerki. This latter process also frees the grain from husk, which is winnowed and sifted away at the same time. The chird is usually rendered soft before being eaten by another soaking in water, but it can be eaten without being soaked. A ser or two pounds of chirá costs about one anna, or three-halfpence. Muri is also made from paddy by first soaking it in water and boiling it, before the drying and husking takes place. When dried in hot sand, the grains are puffed out to four times their ordinary size. It is very light, and is caten between the regular meals as a sort of confection. Khai is made of light paddy from the dman and haimantik crops. The grain is simply parched in heated sand, and the husks come off of themselves. It swells to two or three times the size of muri, and is consequently even lighter than that preparation. It is eaten in the same way. The price of either is a pies a ser, or 1d. for two pounds.

There are, besides, several sorts of cakes (pishtak) made from rice flour, but these are not sold in the básár. The liquid preparations made from rice are-Dhanimad, or country spirits. Under the present system of excise, no spirit is distilled from rice alone. Rice, or perhaps chird, is mixed up together with molasses (gur) and bákhar, and kept for several days until fermentation has ceased. The spirit is then distilled, and is forthwith ready for use. A quart bottle will cost from 10 to 12 annils, or from fifteen to eighteen pence. Pachwai, or rice beer. Rice half cooked is soaked in water for ten or fifteen days, till the grain is almost dissolved. The liquid is then drained off, and drunk as it is. The consumption is entirely confined to the semi-aboriginal tribes. A quart bottle costs from 2 to 1 dand. or a little more than one penny. Paramanna may also be regarded as a liquid preparation made from rice. The grain is boiled with milk, sugar, ghi, and spices, and the result is something like a pudding. It has no market price.

CEREAL CROPS other than rice are not much cultivated in the District. Wheat and barley, with which latter oats are occasionally mingled, are grown on high lands which during the rains go under water. They are sown in September and October, and reaped in February and March. Indian corn is sown on high lands in June and July, and reaped in August and September. Sainá, kodá, and chiná are grown in small quantities on char or alluvial lands, and are used by the cultivators only. They are sown in June and July, and reaped in September and October, at the same seasons as just mentioned for Indian corn.

GREEN CROPS.—These are mostly cold-weather crops. Musúri, peas, gram, khesári, and linseed are sown on char lands in October and November, and reaped in February and March. Múg, kalái, and mustard are sown in September and October and reaped in December and January. Of arhar, two sorts are grown in the District, the one sown and reaped together with múg, and the other sown in October and reaped in March and April.

FIBRES comprise jute and hemp, but neither of them are cultivated to any considerable extent. They grow well in marshy land, requiring very little attention. They are both sown in April and May, and reaped in July and August.

MISCELLANEOUS CROPS.—Sugar-cane is not sufficiently cultivated in Maldah to deserve notice. It is planted in January and February on high lands, and is cut down for use after an interval of fully eleven

months. Indigo is extensively grown both by European planters and several rich natives. The mode of cultivation does not differ from that followed in other Districts. It is sown in the low-lying char lands along all the rivers of the District in the months of September and October, and the crop is gathered in June and July Pán gardens are to be seen here and there in the District, but are not sufficient for the local consumption. The creeper is planted on high lands in April and May, and if properly cared for can be continually utilized for some two or three years. Mulberry shrubs for the feeding of silk-worms are cultivated by nearly three-fourths of the peasants of Maldah. The rice they also grow feeds them; but with the mulberry they pay their rent. The shrub only grows on high land above the reach of inundation, and the soil must be very fertile. This double object is attained by taking fields which are not naturally of a very high elevation, dividing them into manageable plots, and artificially raising each plot, by means of the earth dug out of deep trenches, to the height of six or eight feet. On the top of those compartments the mulberry is planted in September and October, and continues to yield a fair return of leaves for at least three years. Crops of leaves for the successive crops of the silk-worms are cut three or four times in the year. The cultivators take great pains to have the fields carefully fenced, and the soil well manured with cow-dung and suti, the refuse of the Tobacco is sometimes raised in homestead lands indigo plant. round the houses of the cultivators, but only for their own use. Cotton is not cultivated anywhere in the District. The mango tree, like the mulberry plant, is a source of wealth to the cultivators who live in the more favoured parts of the District. Mango orchards line the banks of the Mahananda in the neighbourhood of English The mangos of Maldah are celebrated all over Bengal, and when in season, the fruit is exported largely to Murshiddlaid, and even more distant towns.

AREA, OUT-TURN OF CROPS, ETC.—The definite area of the District was returned in September 1874 by the Boundary Commissioner at 1806'64 square miles. In the year 1869-1870, before recent transfers, the area was estimated at 824,521 acres, or 1288'31 square miles. Of this total, somewhat more than one-half, 426,583 acres, or 666'54 square miles, was under tillage. Of the remainder, 244,130 acres, or 381'45 square miles, were returned as capable of being brought under tillage, and 153,808 acres, or 240'32 square

miles, as absolutely uncultivable. No statistics approaching to accuracy exist which would show the comparative cultivation of each kind of crop; but the Collector has taken the pains to draw up the following estimate:—

Rice, Wheat, Other food grains, Oil-seeds, Indigo, Fibres, Carry forward,		•	Acres. 250,000 25,000 10,000 25,000 30,000 3,583 343,583	Brought forward, Tobacco, Vegetables, Pulses in ordinary use, Mulberry, Grand total,	•	Acres. 343,583 3,000 15,000 50,000 15,000 426,583
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The highest rent paid for rice land is from Rs. 1. 4. 0 to Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighd, or from 7s. 6d. to 9s. an acre. The yield of paddy or unhusked rice from such land would be from 10 to 12 maunds per bighd, or from 22 to 26 hundredweights an acre, the price of which would be from Rs. 15 to 18 per bighá, or from £4, 10s. od. to £5, 8s. od. per acre. Inferior rice land, rented at a proportionately lower rate according to its quality, yields from 7 to 10 maunds per bighi, or from 15 to 22 hundredweights an acre; in which case the produce would be worth from Rs. 10 to Rs. 15 per bigha, or from £3 to £4, 10s. od. an acre. The land on which the bhadai or dus crop is sown is also suited for winter crops, such as mustard, peas, etc. These yield from 5 to 7 maunds per bighá, or from 11 to 15 hundredweights an acre, of the value of from Rs. 7 to Rs. 10 per bighd, or from £2, 2s. od. to £3 an acre. short, a bighá of land adapted for both paddy and winter crops gives a fair return of from 16 to 20 maunds, worth from Rs. 20 to Rs. 25. The acre would thus yield from 35 to 44 hundredweights, worth from £6 to £7, 10s. od. This is the estimate returned by the Collector; but it ought to be accepted with caution, as taking the maund of paddy at too high a value, and disclosing a profit to the cultivator much above the average.

Position of the Cultivators.—The size of the holdings varies from 2 to 1000 bighds, or from two-thirds of an acre to more than 300 acres; but anything beyond 800 bighds, or 270 acres, would be considered as a very large farm, and anything below 25 bighds, or 8 acres, as a very small farm, in this District. About 30 to 50 bighds, or 10 to 17 acres, may be regarded as a fair-sized, comfortable hold-

ing, which would enable its tenant to live as well as a respectable shookeeper. A pair of oxen might possibly be able to cultivate as much as 15 bighds, or 5 acres of land; but so small a holding would only permit the cultivator to live according to the standard of a labourer with Rs. 8 or 16s. a month. The usual practice in Maldah is for several cultivators to club together, and to have two or three ploughs in work at once, passing in turn from one holding to another. The condition of the cultivators is described as being on the whole good; and, as a class, they are not permanently in debt. The great majority of them are mere tenants at will, the proportion of those with occupancy rights being only about 15 per cent., and those not liable to enhancement of rent about 8 per cent. 300 are known to have established their right of occupancy, and about 50 to have been acknowledged to possess their holdings at their present rent in perpetuity, under the clauses of Act x. of 1859. The monthly sum with which a cultivator could support comfortably a middling-sized household of five persons is set down at from Rs. 10 to Rs. 12, or £1 to £1, 48. od. There is no class in the District of small proprietors who own, occupy, and cultivate their own hereditary lands, without either a landlord above them or a labourer of any sort below.

THE DOMESTIC ANIMALS of the District include buffaloes and bullocks, used only for agricultural purposes; elephants, horses, cows, sheep, goats, pigs, fowls, geese, and ducks, kept for food and purposes of trade; and dogs and cats. A cow costs from Rs. 12 to Rs. 15, or from £1, 45. od. to £1, 10s. od.; a pair of oxen, from Rs. 30 to Rs. 60, or from £3 to £6; a score of sheep, from Rs. 40 to Rs. 45, or from £4 to £4, 10s. od.; a score of kids six months old, about Rs. 15, or £1, 10s. od.; and a score of fullgrown pigs, from Rs. 60 to Rs. 100, or from £6 to £7. The following return for Maldah, under the heading of 'stock,' is given among the Returns of the Board of Revenue, No. 41 B, for the year 1868-1869:—Cows and bullocks, 100,000; horses, 200; ponies, 4000; sheep and goats, 5000; pigs, number not ascertained; but very considerable; carts, 5000; ploughs, 700; boats, 1900. These figures, however, are the result of mere guess-work, and cannot be trusted.

THE AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS in use are—a nángal or plough, a bidá or harrow, a mái or clod-crusher, a dault or hoe for weeding, a kodáli or spade for digging, another kind of spade for

digging small holes, a kásté or reaping sickle, and an instrument for separating the ears of rice at threshing. In addition, four bullocks would be required for the cultivation of what is known as a plough of land, amounting to eight or nine acres. The cost of these implements and cattle involves an outlay of not less than Rs. 60 or 70, or £6 or £7.

WAGES.—The demand for labour in the District is greater than the supply, and the rates of wages have of late risen considerably, especially since the famine year of 1865. The daily wages of the labouring classes about twenty years ago are thus returned by the Collector:—Coolies, 2 dands, or 3d.; agricultural day-labourers, 1 dand 6 pie, or 2\frac{1}{2}d.; smiths, 3 to 6 dands, or 4\frac{1}{2}d. to 9d.; bricklayers, 3 dands, or 4\frac{1}{2}d.; carpenters, 3 to 4 dands, or 4\frac{1}{2}d. to 6d. In 1870 the corresponding rates of wages were:—Coolies, 3 to 3\frac{1}{2} dands, or 4\frac{1}{2}d.; agricultural day-labourers, 2 dands, or 3d., with a midday meal, or payment in kind at the rate of 4 bundles of paddy for every 20 bundles cut; smiths, 5 to 8 dands, or 7\frac{1}{2}d. to 1s.; bricklayers, 4 to 4\frac{1}{2} dands, or 6d. to 6\frac{2}{3}d.; carpenters, 6 to 8 dands, or 9d. to 1s.

PRICES OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCE.—The price of food-stuffs has also gone up considerably within the last twenty years, but apparently not in such a proportion as the rate of wages. The table on next page shows the prices of the chief kinds of agricultural produce, both according to Indian standards and their English equivalents, in the year 1853-1854, the earliest for which materials are available, in the famine year 1865-1866, in 1870, and in 1873.

It will be seen that prices have gradually lowered since 1866, but that they have not returned to what was considered to be the ordinary level before the famine year. The prices of some other agricultural products in 1870 were:—Indigo, not sold in the District, but despatched for sale to Calcutta, Rs. 250 to Rs. 325 a maund, or £34 to £43 per hundredweight; sugar-cane, R. 1. 4. 0 to R. 1. 8. 0 a maund, or 3s. 5d. to 4s. 1d. per hundredweight; gram, Rs. 2 a maund, or 5s. 5d. per hundredweight; arhar, R. 1. 10. 0 a maund, or 4s. 5d. per hundredweight; peas, R. 1. 4. 0 a maund, or 3s. 5d. per hundredweight; mig, Rs. 3. 5. 0 a maund, or 9s. per hundredweight; kaldi, R. 1. 6. 0 a maund, or 3s. 9d. per hundredweight; khesári, R. 1. 7. 0 a maund, or 3s. 11d. per hundredweight; linseed, Rs. 4 a maund, or 10s. 11d. per hundredweight; linseed, Rs. 4 a maund, or 10s. 11d. per hundredweight.

ORDINARY PRICES OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCE IN MALDAII DISTRICT FOR THE YFARS 1853-54, 1865-66, 1870, AND 1873.

	-1623-54	*	1865-66.	*	-	a) di	1633	
	per maunil. per cut	per cut	per manual	ber cut.	per mirand.	per cut.	per manual	per cut.
		. 4 . 6		, , , ,		2075	4	
Pest cleaned rice,	9 1 1	3 5-3 9	3 12-4 0	. 1 4-1 6 3 5-3 9 3 12-4 0 10 2-10 11 3 0 6	3 0	: m	£.	• •
Common net	1 0-1	2 8-3 1	3 0-3 4	. 1 0-1 2 2 8-3 1 3 0-3 4 8 3-8 10 1 8-2 0 4 1-5 5	1 8-3	4 1-5 5	1 13	4
liest patidy or unshelled rice,	0 13-0 14	2 0-2 4	2 0-2 4	. 0 13-0 14 3 0-3 4 3 0-3 4 5 5-6 2 1 4-1 8 3 5-4 1	1 4-1 8	3 5-4 1		N. GIVER.
Common paddy.	0 10- 0 12	1 8-3 0	0 2-61 1	0 10-0 12 1 8-2 0 1 13-2 0 4 9-5 54 1 0-1 2 2 8-3 1	- 9 1	2 8-3 1	··	9
Unshelled Larky,	0 12-1 0	2 6-2 8	3 13-4 0	. 0 15-1 0 2 6- 2 8 3 13-4 0 10 2-10 11	: ••		n -	
Indian corn.	6 0-8 0	9 1-+ 1	0 12 0 15	0 8-0 9 1 4-1 6 0 12-0 13 2 0-2 2 1 0	: •	:	ž	Not given.
Wheat,	0		3 10-3 12	2 8 3 10-3 12 9 10-10 2 1 13-8 8 4 9 - 6 10	1 13-8	4 9 - 6 10	•	•
Sugar-cane giv. or molasses.	:: o m		0 5	0 : 8 2 5 0 13 8 4 0-5 0 10 11-13 8	4 0-5 0	10 11-13 6	Ng.	given.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—The unit of weight is everywhere the ser (seer), divided into the following denominations: -4 kánchá = 1 chhaták; 4 chhatáks=1 poyá; 4 poyás=1 ser; 40 sers=1 man ot maund. The standard ser of 80 tolis weight has been uniformly adopted for the calculations in this Account; but sers of a different weight are widely current throughout the District, though the component parts of the ser always remain constant. The standard ser of 80 tolás is in use at English Bázár; at Gárgáribá, Kharbá, and Gájol a ser of 96 tolás is used; at Maldah, a ser of 100 tolás; at Síbganj, of 82 tolás; while at Rohanpur, Gumáshtápur, and Nawabganj, the ser contains only 60 tolás. The subdivisions of the ser and also the maund vary proportionately. The measure of distance is the kos, which is equivalent to a English miles. It is subdivided as follows:-I ádhá kos = I mile; I poyá kos = $\frac{1}{4}$ mile; I ádhá poyá kos = $\frac{1}{4}$ mile or 2 furlongs. The unit of time is the pal, equivalent to about 24 seconds. The tables runs thus: - 60 pals = 1 dandá; 8 dandás = 1 prahar, or 3 hours; 8 prahars = a day and night. The unit of square measure is the lattil, 20 of which make up the bighd. The standard bighá is 1600 square yards, or 14,400 square feet, so that the lattá should be 4 square yards, and exactly equal to 4 standard háths, of which 80 make up the standard bighá. The lattd, however, varies all over the District, and is of different dimensions not only in different pargands, but also in various parts of the same pargand. The report of the Revenue Surveyor (1852) gives a list of 11 bighás locally used in the District, varying from 1600 square yards to 4225 square y.rds; which he thus arranges according to the varying dimensions of the latta, as estimated in terms of haths or cubits of 18 inches :-

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1 lattd = 4 cubits 0 inches, making 1 bight = 1,600 square yards.
      = 4
            ••
                6
                                         = 1.578
                     ,,
                            ,,
      = 4
                 9
                                         = 2,025
      = 4
             ,, 134 ,,
                                         = 2,256
                                    ,,
                            ..
      = 5
                 0
                                         = 2,500
             ••
                            ••
      = 5
                                         = 3,025
                 9
            ,,
                            ••
      = 5
                 12 ,,
                                         = 3,211
                            ••
      = 6
                                         = 3,600
                 0
             **
                                    ••
                    •••
                            **
      = 6
                 3
                                 1
                                         = 3,803
             ,,
                     ••
                            ..
                6
                                         = 4,011
       = 6
                     ••
                             ••
      = 6
                                 1
                                         = 4,225
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LANDLESS LABOURING CLASSES.—The Collector reports that in the neighbourhood of the larger towns, such as English Bázár and

Maldah, there is a distinct class of day-labourers who do not possess any land of their own. In the eastern parts, also, and especially in the north-eastern parts of the District, labourers are regularly required for harvest purposes, and flock thither in considerable numbers both from other parts of Maldah and from the western Districts. Those living near the towns do not constitute an increasing class. They are chiefly employed in the cultivation of the mulberry, and are paid daily wages in cash. With reference to the general question of field labour, the Collector remarks that, except at harvest time, it is rare to find any but adult males working in the fields. At that season, however, the Hindus occasionally employ their women, and the Muhammadans their children, but not vice versa.

SPARE LAND.—As has already been stated, a large quantity of the land in the District has not yet been brought under tillage. Cultivation, however, is rapidly extending, but there will always remain a good deal of intractable and hilly jungle. There are no peculiar tenures in the District which aim directly at the reclamation of waste land, but on the whole the cultivating tenures generally are favourable to the extension of tillage.

TENURES OF LAND.—The following account of the different varieties of land tenure met with in the District of Maldah is mainly taken from a report on the subject drawn up in 1873 by Bábu Sítákant Mukharjí, supplemented by a report furnished at the same time by Mr. H. R. Reily, manager under the Court of Wards of the Chánchál estates. The tenures are divided into four classes,—(1) estates paying rent direct to Government; (2) intermediate tenures; (3) cultivating and miscellaneous tenures; (4) rent free tenures.

ESTATES PAVING REVENUE DIRECT TO GOVERNMENT. — The number of these estates in 1873 was 560. Of these, 219 were held by zamindárs paying more than Rs. 100 or £10 per annum, and 290 by zamindárs paying a land tax below that amount. The remainder comprised 18 estates in the Court of Wards, and 33 with no other proprietor than Government itself. These Government estates are all of small extent,—26 of them are let out to farm, and 7 are directly managed by Government officials. Of the total number of 560 estates, 244, with an assessment of £31,544, 8s. od., date from the Permanent Settlement. The remaining 316 have been added to the rent-roll since that time, being for the most part either resumed rent-free tenures or alluvial accretions.

INTERMEDIATE TENURES.—This class includes all those rights which interpose between the superior samindar and the actual cultivator. Sub-tenures created before the Permanent Settlement. such as istimrari or mukarrári táluks, do not exist in this District. The number of patris is considerable. The peculiarity of this tenure, which is of modern origin, is that, though it is held at a fixed rent, and descends to the heirs of the tenant, it is liable at any moment to be destroyed by the sale of the superior estate on default of the samindar in satisfying the Government demand. The paintdar may create any number of subordinate tenures under himself with similar rights to his own, but they all must fall in with his own estate. In Maldah there is only one such dar-patni. Next comes the iidra or farm, which is a terminable lease. Dar ijaras or sub-leases are not known in the District. Of ijdras, the most common kind is that called middl. This lease is for a term of years, varying from one to fifty, and is commonly offered by the larger zamindars and by absentee landholders to save them the expense and trouble of making the collections themselves. The properties of indigo planters are often held by the same form of lease for years, which is locally termed thok. Another kind of iiárá is dáisudi, which is substantially a mortgage of the land to the tenant, who retains it until the rent shall have satisfied the capital and interest of the loan. Daisudis are of rare occurrence in Maldah. Istimrari 101s, or permanent, hereditary, and transferable leases, are also found; but these tenuces, which are mostly situated in the north-west of the District, do not collectively cover more than 1000 acres, and are not created at the present day. Mukarrári or mushakhasi jots are in their conditions of a similar nature to the above, but are much more common in this District. The Deputy-Collector estimates their total number at not less than 1000, occupying an area of about 17,000 acres.

CULTIVATING AND MISCELLANEOUS TENURES.—Jot, or rayati jot, is the name for the common tenures of the cultivators, either with or without a right of occupancy. The terms are a subject of annual arrangement, and, together with the area of the holding, are embodied in a pattá or lease given to the cultivator, and a kabúliyat or counterpart kept by the landlord. The rights thus created are of a transferable character, and confer on the tenant a right of occupancy after twelve years' continuous occupation. Thiká, or summary or miádi jot, is a similar tenure, granted for a term of years, and is more a

subject of contract and less a matter of usage than the former. It also is transferable, and is common in the more fertile parts of the District. Hall hasila is an extremely common form of holding. chiefly in the less advanced tracts in the north, and in the didre makals in the west and south of the District. Of the three extensive pargands which compose the Chanchal estates, now managed by the Court of Wards, two are ascertained to be entirely occupied with these holdings. The following account is derived from the report of Mr. Reily, the manager of those estates. The peculiarity of the tenure is, that the cultivator only pays rent for such lands as he may have cultivated during the year, and the rate is proportioned to the kinds of crop that he has raised. There is no written agreement, but the tenant is recognised to have a sort of claim to continuance. The lands actually occupied and the rent payable vary each year, and of course no right of occupancy can arise. The source of this tenure, however, is not to be found in the grasping disposition of the zaminddes, but in the vitality of the old Hindu village system. It is, in fact, a relic of the days when the entire lands of the village were annually divided afresh among all the villagers. Even at present, it is usually the head-man of the village and not each individual peasant with whom the annual agreement and partition is made by the zamindár. 'The entire village, under the authority of the head-man, acts in concert. The land to the east of the village is cultivated for one or two seasons, while the land to the west lies fallow, and is used as grazing ground for cattle. After the lapse of the two years, the land to the west is brought under cultivation, while that to the east lies fallow; and so on alternately.' This is the simplest form of the hall hastla tenure; but for the proper working of such a system, it is manifest that two requisites are necessary. The village community must retain its traditional influence over its members, and there must be abundance of spare land. In pargand Gaurhand this is apparently the case, for there Mr. Reily states that the greater part of each holding is exchanged every year. In parraná Hátandá, however, where the pressure of the population is greater, it would appear that a new variety of hall hasila is springing up. 'The yearly exchange of land cannot be indulged in so freely as of old, for the peasant is in no way certain that his relinquished plot will not be occupied by an interloper before the year is out.' This difficulty is met in the following way. 'In each new assessment on the part of the samin-VOL VII.

dár, the lands are so rated that the tenant is enabled to hold an extra quantity of land at a nominal rent, so that he may allow a certain portion of his holding to remain fallow each year, answering the double purpose both of recruiting its powers and of acting as a grazing ground for his cattle.' The hal hasila tenure, therefore, is losing its primitive character as an integral part of the customs of the village, and is tending to become a mere matter of contract between landlord and tenant, in which case it will before long merge in the ordinary jot. Khamar and nij-jot are two forms of holding which resemble each other in the circumstances that they are both regarded as in a special sense the private property of the zamindár, and that neither of them were assessed before the Decennial Settlement. Both of them are common in this District. Khamar is properly applied to lands which were originally waste but have been reclaimed. They are then either retained by the zamindars, or let out at a grain rent; from this latter practice the name is derived. The khámár lands belonging to the Chánchál estates comprise an area of 130 or 170 acres. Nij-jot, which must be carefully distinguished from what is elsewhere called nij-táluk, is the name for the home farms of the samindars, cultivated by themselves and for their own benefit. Their average area may amount to from 40 to 300 bighás, or from 13 to 100 acres. Chákrán, or service tenures, are held by various servants, such as the washerman, the barber, the gardener, etc., in part payment of their services. These tenures also had their place at one time in the village system, when these persons were the common servants of the villagers; but at the present day they are created by all the various superior tenure-holders in the District in favour of their own personal attendants. The chákrán lands are thus rentfree in the sense that their occupiers do not pay rent, but they are no longer excluded from the Government assessment. report of Mr. Reily on the tenures of the Chanchal estates shows that the service lands in parganá Hátandá amount to 2012 acres. or 3.62 per cent. of the whole area; and in parganá Gaurhand to 441 acres, or 1.55 of the whole. Adhi, Trikuti (tikuti), and pharani are the names of sub-tenures created by cultivators themselves. who for various reasons wish a certain portion of their holding to be taken off their hands. They all partake somewhat of the metayer character, and prevail largely all over the District. In the ddhl, as is implied by the name, the produce is shared in

equal moieties between the two parties; whilst the usual agreement with reference to cultivation is, that the petty landlord shall find the seed and all other expenses, and the husbandman merely supply his labour, which includes the entire cultivation as well as the reaping. The trikuti does not differ from the ddhi, except that two-thirds of the crop are assigned to the petty landlord, and only one-third (from which the name is derived) to the husbandman. In the pherani, the husbandman agrees to pay to his landlord a definite number of maunds for each bighd, quite independently of the actual produce which he may reap, and thus takes all the risks of the season. lalkar is a lease of a fishery. In this District a considerable proportion of the revenue of the zamindairs is derived from this source. Banjar is a lease of land that has been suffered to run to waste, for the cutting of trees and underwood for fuel. There are four large baniars in this District, which on an average cover an area of 15,000 bighds or 5000 acres a piece. Phalkar is a lease of garden ground. This tenure, under the Muhammadan rule, was of more importance than it is now. At the present time, orchards and gardens are usually included in the ordinary jot of the cultivators, and phalkirs have become very rare in the District.

RENT-FREE TENURES.—Lakhiraj, or rent-free tenures, may be divided, according to their origin, into (1.) those created by the paramount authority of the country, (11.) those created by a subordinate government, and (III.) those created by Muhammadan and Hindu landholders. Of class 1. there are two examples in this District, one of a Dehli emperor, and the other of the English. Taraf Pirigpur, near Gaur, in pargand Shershahabad, with an area of more than 15,000 bighds or 5000 acres, and now divided into 27 separate estates, was conferred by the Emperor Aurangzeb on his priest Sayyid This is known as a bádsháhí Niámat-ullá for charitable uses. altamghá, or an imperial grant under a red or purple seal. The other case is a plot of ground in mauza Mahanpur, within pargand Shikarpur, containing about 3380 bighas or 1127 acres, which was assigned in the time of Lord Cornwallis for the support of an invalid sepoy establishment. The lands were thus apportioned:-1 jamddár, 200 bighás; 2 hawáldárs, at 120 bighás; 3 náiks, at 120 bighás; 33 sepoys, at 80 bighds. This is called a jugir, or rent-free grant for special services. The lands are now in the possession of a native merchant of English Bázár. Class 11. comprises 3 estates in this District, which were created at different times by the Nawab Názims of Bengal, and are all of considerable extent. Parganá Baishazari, already alluded to, was conferred in 1709 A.D. on the great-grandfather of its present possessor. He was the hereditary manager of the monument of Pir Mukdam Shah, and the revenues of the estate are still devoted to the maintenance of that monument, which has been described in connection with Panduah. Shashazari was granted in 1648 in a similar way, for the support of persons studying religious books and for alms to the poor. These tenures are called ausat madatmash, or subordinate grants for charitable purposes. The third of this class is a jágir in the north-west of the District, which is said to have been granted by Mir Jásar to a fakir who betrayed the Nawab Sirai-ud Daula after his escape from the battle of Plassey. Class III. comprehends the remaining lákhiráj tenures in the District, which in their origin and destination are similar to those in the rest of Bengal. Two hundred and forty-seven have been acknowledged by Government as rent-free in perpetuity, and entered on the register of the Collectorate, which is now finally closed. They chiefly prevail in pargani Shershahabad, in the south-west of the District. Besides these, there are many other rent-free tenures in the District of old standing. The 247 are thus classified: -Below to birhis. Muhammadan grants 62, Hindu grants 79; above 10 and below 25 bighds, Muhammadan grants none, Hindu grants 11; above 25 and below so bighás, Muhammadan grants 5, Hindu grants 22; above 50 and below 100 bighds, Muhammadan grants 2, Hindu grants 13: from 100 highás upwards, Muhammadan grants 6, Hindu grants 47. The names of the rent-free grants which are most common in Maldah are pirán, fakirán, kaburgah, and khirat for Muhammadan uses; and debottar, brithmottar, and sivottar for Hindu objects.

Mr. Reily furnishes the following statistics for the rent-free tenures existing in two large pargands belonging to the Chanchal estates. In pargand Hatanda, 5226 acres, or 6:49 per cent. of the whole area, are held by likhirajdars, thus classified:—

	Delottar (for the service of the detties), .		•		Acres. 1318
2,	Brahmottar (for the support of Brahmans),	•	•	•	2726
•	Bhatestur (for the support of Mds, or herakl-),		•		50
4.	Vishmetar (for the service of Vishnu), .				77
•	Ganakottar (for the support of astrologers),	•	•		138
6.	Jogiesen (for the seats of devotees),				1
•	Haidyottar (for the support of physicians), .			٠.	26
8.	Inámi (given for rewards),				12

10. 11. 12.	Mandallán (i Mahátrán (g Aimá (for the Pirán (for pr Fakirán (for	iven (e sub- eserv the s	o men sistence ing the uppor	nofr ceofi neme tofi	ank), Musal mory Muha	máns of M mmac). uham lan re	mada ligiou	n sain s mer		Acres. 2 319 160 374
	cants), .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	23
								To	tal,		5226

In parganá Gaurhand the lákhiráj tenures amount to 1789 acres or 6:31 per cent. of the total area. They are thus arranged:—

						Tυ	tal.		1789
8.	Fakirán, .	•		•	•		•		20
•	Pirán, .								57
	Aimá, .								10
5.	Mandallán,	•							79
•	Ganakottar,							•	3
•	Visknottar,	•	•						3
	Bráhmottar,	•							1219
	Debottar, .								398

The Collector is of opinion that the greater part of the land in the District has passed out of the hands of the sadr samindár into those of intermediate holders.

RATES OF RENT.—The appended statement, showing the prevailing rates of rent per standard bighd of 80 haths, and per acre, for the different descriptions of lands and crops, is taken almost verbatim from a report of the Collector, dated August 1872:—There is no Subdivision in Maldah, and consequently five Divisions were arbitrarily chosen, according to the general character of their soil and the description of their crops. The source of information was mainly the zamindars; and the Collector believes that the figures are accurate. The several descriptions of land producing the ordinary crops have been classified according as they produce one, two, or three crops a year, this being the criterion which mainly regulates the rate of rent. Lands producing special crops have been separately entered. Sugar-cane and Indian corn are grown to such a trifling extent that no separate rates for them are necessary. In the remarks after each Division, the distinguishing characteristics of soil, crops, etc., have been noted. It will be observed that the rates of rent are highest in the central portion of the District, the

western portions ranging next, and the lowest rates being in the east. This difference is determined primarily by the quality of the land itself, and in the second place, by the pressure of the population and consequent demand for land, which may be caused by other circumstances than its fertility.

DIVISION I. North-west and western portion of the District, including part of the tract of country between the Ganges and the Mahánandá, and situated principally in tháná Gárgáribá. Land producing three crops a year, such as bhadai or early rice, kalái. and peas: rate per bigha, R. 1; rate per acre, 6s. Land producing two crops, such as bhadai rice and khesári: rate per bighd. 8 to 12 annás; rate per acre, 3s. to 4s. 6d. Land producing one crop, chiefly dman or late rice: rate per bighá, 4 to 6 dnnás: rate per acre, 1s. 6d. to 2s. 3d. Land producing boro or marsh rice crop: rate per bighá, 8 to 10 ánnás; rate per acre, 3s. to 3s. od. Land producing one crop, such as mustard or barley: rate per bighá, 3 to 8 annas; rate per acre, 1s. 11d. to 3s. Indigo: rate per bigha, 4 to 6 ánnás; rate per acre, 1s. 6d. to 2s. 3d. Hemp and tobacco: rate per bighá, 3 to 10 ánnás; rate per acre, 1s. 11d. to 3s. 9d. Vegetables: rate per highá, 12 ánnás to R. 1; rate per acre, 4s. 6d. to 6s. Plantain gardens: rate per bighá, 8 to 12 ánnás; rate per acre, 3s. to 4s. 6d. Mango gardens: rate per bighá, 10 ánnás to R. 1. 8. 0; rate per acre, 3s. 9d. to 9s. Bamboo gardens: rate per bighá, 8 ánnás to R. 1. 8. 0; rate per acre, 3s. to 9s. lands in this Division are principally what is termed dorás diárá, or light alluvial soil, on which the early rice (bhadai) and cold-weather crops of all sorts are grown. Indigo is also cultivated, but little or no mulberry.

Division II. South-west and western portion of the District, including part of the tract of country between the Ganges and the Mahánandá, and situated principally in thánás Sibganj and Káliáchak. Land producing three crops, such as bhadai or early rice, kalái, and peas: rate per bighá, R. 1. 4. 0; rate per acre, 7s. 6d. Land producing two crops, such as bhadai rice and khesárí: rate per bighá, 8 ánnás to R. 1; rate per acre, 3s. to 6s. Land producing one crop, chiefly áman or late rice: rate per bighá, 4 to 6 ánnás; rate per acre, 1s. 6d. to 2s. 3d. Land producing boro or marsh rice crop: rate per bighá, 8 ánnás to R. 1; rate per acre, 3s. to 6s. Land producing one crop, such as mustard or barley: rate per bighá, 3 to 10 ánnás; rate per acre, 1s. 1½d. to 3s. 9d.

Mulberry land, first quality: rate per bighd, 12 dands to R. 1. 8. 0; rate per acre, 4s. 6d. to 9s. Mulberry land, second quality: rate per bighd, 8 to 12 dands; rate per acre, 3s. to 4s. 6d. Indigo: rate per bighd, 4 to 10 dands; rate per acre, 1s. 6d. to 3s. 9d. Tobacco: rate per bighd, 8 dands to R. 1; rate per acre, 3s. to 6s. Vegetables: rate per bighd, 12 dands to R. 1. 4. 0; rate per acre, 4s. 6d. to 7s. 6d. Plantain gardens: rate per bighd, 8 to 12 dands; rate per acre, 3s. to 4s. 6d. Mango gardens: rate per bighd, R. 1; rate per acre, 6s. Bamboo gardens: rate per bighd, 8 dands to R. 1. 8. 0; rate per acre, 3s. to 9s. The lands in this division are very similar to those in the first, but towards the eastward and away from the Ganges a heavier soil is met with. The crops principally grown are bhadai or early rice, cold-weather crops of all kinds, and indigo and mulberry. Baro rice is also to be seen, but hemp is very little cultivated.

Division III. North and north-east portion of the District, including chiefly the tract of country on both sides of the Mahinanda, situated in thánás Kharbá and Gájol. Land producing three crops, such as bhadai or early rice, kalái, and peas: rate per highd, R. 1; rate per acre, 6s. Land producing two crops, such as bhadai rice and khesdri: rate per highai, 6 to 10 annis, rate per acre, 2s. 3d. to 38. 9d. Land producing one crop, chiefly dman or late rice: rate per bighá, 2 to 8 ánnás; rate per acre, 9d. to 35. Land producing boro or marsh rice crop: rate per bigha, 8 to 12 annals; rate per acre, 3s. to 4s. 6d. Land producing one crop, such as mustard or barley: rate per bigha, 3 to 6 annas; rate per acre, 1s. 11d. to 28. 3d. Hemp and tobacco: rate per bighi, 4 to 10 dunds; rate per acre, 1s. 6d. to 3s. 9d. Vegetables: rate per bighá, 8 to 10 dumis; rate per acre, 3s. to 3s. 9d. Plantain gardens: rate per bigha, 6 to 8 annas; rate per acre, 2s. 3d. to 3s. Mango gardens: rate per bighel, 10 annas to R. 1; rate per acre, 3s. 9d. to 6s. Bamboo gardens: rate per bighá, 8 ánnás to R. 1. 8. 0; rate per acre, 3s. to 9s. The soil of this division is chiefly of the quality known as matiur, a rich clay soil mixed with a small proportion of sand. Both the early (bhadai) and late (dman) rice crops are extensively grown; and boro rice is also sown on the edges of the bils. Cold-weather crops and hemp and tobacco are cultivated to a small extent, but there is very little either of mulberry or indigo.

DIVISION IV. South-east and east portion of the District, including the tract of country to the east of the Mahananda, situated in

thánás Gumáshtápur and Nawábganj. Land producing three crops, such as bhadai or early rice, kaldi, and peas: rate per bighá, R. 1. 4. 0; rate per acre, 7s. 6d. Land producing two crops, such as bhadai rice and khesári: rate per bighá, 8 to 12 ánnás; rate per acre, 3s. to 4s. 6d. Land producing one crop, chiefly dman or late rice: rate per bighá, 2 to 8 ánnás; rate per acre, od. to 3s. Land producing boro or marsh rice crop: rate per bighá, 8 ánnás to R. 1. 4. 0; rate per acre, 3s. to 7s. 6d. Land producing one crop. such as mustard or barley: rate per bighá, 3 to 8 ánnás; rate per acre, 1s. 11d. to 3s. Mulberry land, first quality: rate per bighá, 12 annás to R. 1. 8. 0; rate per acre, 4s. 6d. to 9s. Mulberry land, second quality: rate per bighá, 8 to 12 ánnás; rate per acre. 38. to 48. 6d. Vegetables: rate per bighá, 8 to 10 ánnás; rate per acre, 3s. to 3s. 9d. Plantain gardens: rate per bighá, R. 1; rate per acre, 6s. Mango gardens: rate per bighá, 8 ánnás to R. 1. 8. 0; rate per acre, 3s. to 9s. Bamboo gardens: rate per bighá, 8 ánnás to R. 1. 8. 0; rate per acre, 3s. to 9s. The lands in this Division have a similar soil to those of the last. A remarkable feature is the undulating matiar land, which is here called burin. The slopes and ravines are extensively cultivated with the late rice crop, called haimantik, from the time when it is reaped. The boro rice crop is also much grown on the edges of the jhils. Mulberry and cold-weather crops are cultivated on the higher lands near the Mahánandá; but there is no tobacco or hemp, and little indigo.

Division V. Central portion of the District, including chiefly the tract of country on both sides of the Mahánandá, situated in thánás English Bázár and Maldah. Land producing three crops, such as bhadai or early rice, kalái, and peas: rate per bighá, R. 1. 4. 0; rate per acre, 7s. 6d. Land producing two crops, such as bhadai rice and khesárí: rate per bighá, 6 to 12 ánnás; rate per acre, 2s. 3d. to 4s. 6d. Land producing one crop, chiefly áman or late rice: rate per bighá, 4 to 8 ánnás; rate per acre, 1s. 6d. to 3s. Land producing boro or marsh rice crop: rate per bighá, 8 ánnás to Rs. 3; rate per acre, 3s. to 18s. Land producing one crop, such as mustard or barley: rate per bighá, 5 to 10 ánnás; rate per acre, 1s. 10åd. to 3s. 9d. Mulberry land, first quality: rate per bighá, R. 1 to R. 1. 8. 0; rate per acre, 6s. to 9s. Mulberry land, second quality: rate per bighá, 8 ánnás to R. 1; rate per acre, 3s. to 6s. Indigo: rate per bighá, 4 to 6 ánnás; rate per acre, 1s. 6d.

to 2s. 3d. Tobacco: rate per bighd, 8 dnnds to R. 1; rate per acre, 3s. to 6s. Vegetables: rate per bighd, 12 dnnds to R. 1. 4. 0; rate per acre, 4s. 6d. to 7s. 6d. Plantain gardens: rate per bighd, 10 dnnds to Rs. 2; rate per acre, 3s. 9d. to 12s. Mango gardens: rate per bighd, 12 dnnds to Rs. 3; rate per acre, 4s. 6d. to 18s. Bamboo gardens: rate per bighd, 8 dunds to Rs. 2; rate per acre, 3s. to 12s. The lands in this Division are of good quality, partly matiar and partly alluvial. The mulberry is very extensively cultivated, as also are all the rice crops. The mango gardens are excellent and numerous. Hemp is hardly grown at all.

Mr. Reily, the manager of the Chánchál estates under the Court of Wards, thus returns the average rates of rent paid by the cultivators in the two following pargands:—Hátandá: average rent per holding, 17s. 3d.; average rent per acre, 4s. 6d. Gaurhand: average rent per holding, 13s. 4d.; average rent per acre, 4s. 0\frac{1}{2}d.

As the District of Maldah is of recent formation, it has been found impossible to ascertain the rates of rent about the time of the Permanent Settlement. The Collector, however, has furnished the following list of the average rates of rent prevailing in the District in the year 1842,—the earliest date to which the Records in the Collectorate go back. Bistu or homestead land, R. 1 per bighá or 6s. an acre; udbástu or land surrounding the homestead, R. 1 per bighá or 6s. an acre; ordinary rice land, 3 ánnás per bighá or 1s. 1½d. an acre; baisákhi or lands suited for cold-weather crops, 4 ánnás per bighá or 1s. 6d. an acre; indigo lands, 4 ánnás per bighá or 1s. 6d. an acre.

ENHANCEMENT OF RENT.—Rates of rent have undoubtedly risen within the last thirty years. The Rent Law, however, has not directly contributed much to this rise. Its operation has been variable, according to the disposition of the zamindárs and the demand for land among the cultivators. In parganá Shersháhábád it has been felt to a greater extent than elsewhere, and there the Collector imagines that the rents of about one-third of the peasants have been enhanced. Considering the overwhelming proportion which the mere tenants-at-will bear to those who have a right to hold without enhancement of rent, the zamindárs could no doubt, if they chose, apply the Act to their own great advantage. That they have not generally done so is probably due to the fact that there is in the District a scarcity of labour rather than of land, and an abundance of waste ground to be brought under tillage.

Manure is only used on mulberry lands, and there given in the form of cow-dung and *suti* or indigo refuse. From 8 to 15 *maunds* per *bighd*, or from 17 to 32 hundredweights per acre, once a year, is considered to be a liberal allowance. The annual expense of this quantity of manure would amount to from Rs. 3 to Rs. 4 per *bighd*, or from 18s. to \mathcal{L}_1 , 4s. od. per acre.

IRRIGATION is not necessary in this District, except for the boro rice crop, inasmuch as almost the whole of the cultivated fields go entirely under water during the rains. For the irrigation of the boro rice no tanks or wells are required. It is always planted along the edges of marshes and lakes, or on the banks of rivers, so that the common jant is all that is wanted to throw the water over it. The cost of this may reach to Rs. 4 or Rs. 5 per bigha on an average, which gives from £1, 4s. od. to £1, 10s. od. per acre.

FALLOWS; ROTATION OF CROPS, ETC.—When fields are situated above the level of the annual floods, they are reserved for the growth of wheat and other cold-weather crops; and to restore their powers, they are often left fallow for a year or two at a time. In some parts of the District, especially in pargand Gaurhand, as has been already mentioned in connection with the hall hasilal land tenure, the custom of leaving fallow some considerable portion of the village lands in alternate years extensively prevails. Rotation of crops is nowhere practised, nor can it be said to be required, as by far the greater part of the arable land is each year refreshed with a new deposit of river mud.

NATURAL CALAMITIES.—BLIGHTS are of comparatively rare occurrence in the District, and when they do occur, are so partial in their incidence as never to affect seriously the general harvest. Their visitation is in the form of insects, which destroy the rice, peas, etc. In 1869, for example, the peas suffered a great deal from insects eating the pods as soon as they formed; but the mischief was confined to thank Kaliachak. No remedial measures are known.

FLOODS of a destructive character are of frequent occurrence. Between 1850 and 1870 there were three several inundations, which caused great distress in all parts of the District, especially in the low lands along the rivers. These floods resulted not so much from rain on the spot, as from an abnormal rise in the rivers due to the rainfall higher up. Most of the rivers and streams in Maldah

take their rise in the Himalaya mountains, and therefore are peculiarly liable to sudden freshets, caused by the melting of snow or by excessive rainfall in the mountains. The autumn of 1871 was signalized in Maldah, in common with the neighbouring Districts, by an inundation more severe than had been known for fifty years. The Ganges encroached upon the town of Haiatpur, and washed away the Government buildings, police station, and distillery. The Mahánandá also flooded the town and station of English Blzar, but, except the houses of a few poor families, no material damage was done. Generally, too, notwithstanding the unusual height and duration of the floods, the crops suffered very little. The only rice in the ground at the time was the bhadai, which is far from being the staple crop of the District. The mulberries were a good deal injured, which chiefly affected the wealthier class of cultivators. Many cattle were drowned, and many more perished, as is usual, from the diseases generated from the soaked fields. When the water at last subsided, epidemics broke out among the people: fever and cholera were rife throughout the District, and small pox caused several deaths in the town of Maldah. To avert such disasters there are no modern embankments in the District, except two small structures erected to save English Bazár and Maldah new The magnificent ramparts or dams of Gaur do nothing at the present day but attract wonder. It is probable that an claborate system of river embankments, with a number of sluices at short intervals to permit of the natural irrigation, would be an immense benefit to the District. Such works would be most useful along the banks of the Mahananda, the Tangan, and the Purnabhald. The cost, however, of carrying out this scheme would be enormous, and utterly disproportionate to the advantages conferred.

DROUGHTS of a serious nature are not common in the District. The rivers rarely fail to rise to their usual height, which is sufficient to cover the greater part of the cultivated land, and the amount of local rainfall is of secondary importance. The existence also of numerous marshes contributes in the same direction. Slight droughts do occasionally occur through a deficiency of rain, but such mischief as they cause is confined to very limited areas. No drought (prior to that of 1873-74) has been known, within the present generation, so severe as to affect the general prosperity of the District. No means, therefore, are anywhere adopted to

guard against drought, nor is there any demand for canals or other artificial modes of irrigation.

COMPENSATING INFLUENCES IN EVENT OF FLOOD OR DROUGHT exist to a certain extent. If inundations were to destroy all the crops in the low lands, no compensation would result from increased fertility in the higher tracts, for of these about two-thirds are occupied with kátál jungle, and are hopelessly sterile. But, on the other hand, if a drought were to destroy the crops on the high lands, the increased fertility of the marshes and river valleys would go far towards supplying the local deficiency of grain.

Famines.—In the famine year of 1865-66, the highest prices that were touched were — for cleaned rice, Rs. 4 a maund, or 10s. 11d. per hundredweight; for paddy, or unhusked rice, Rs. 2. 8. 0 a maund, or 6s. 10d. per hundredweight. These rates continued for but a very short time; and generally during that year the prices of food stuffs never rose to such an extent as to require Government relief. Prices have not yet entirely returned to what were considered the normal rates before the famine. The scarcity of 1873-74 was severely felt in Maldah. It was found necessary to import a large quantity of grain on Government account, and relief operations were undertaken on a grand scale.

FAMINE PROSPECTS.—Rice forms the staple food of the District; and it is considered that famine prices are reached when this commodity sells in the bázárs at 10 sers for the rupee, which is Rs. 4 a maund, or 10s. 11d. per hundredweight, and other grains at a corresponding increase above their usual rate. If rice were to become yet dearer than this, the Collector is of opinion that the interference of Government would then be required to save the people at large from actual starvation. The poorer classes are not sufficiently well off to afford to pay for what is necessary for their daily consumption at such prices. The áman or late rice crop forms the main food supply of the District. If this were from any cause to fail, there would follow a great rise in prices in January and February,-a sure precursor of famine. The dus crop would by no means compensate for the total loss of the áman, or enable the people to live through the year. In importing an adequate supply of food in the event of famine, no difficulty would be ex-River communication in the District is abundant at all seasons of the year, especially in its most populous portions. This natural advantage, together with the contiguity of the railway at Rájmahal, just across the Ganges, would enable the Government to introduce the required amount of grain into any famine-stricken corner of the District. The only recommendations that the Collector has to offer on this topic are, that a good metalled road should be made to connect English Bázár and other towns with the ferry that crosses the Ganges opposite Rájmahal; and further, that a similar road should be run to meet the new line of rail to Dárjiling. The proposed route of this railway will nowhere intersect this District, but pass close to the south-eastern border. A road to that point from English Bázár might be so laid out as to pass through the grain mart of Rohanpur.

FOREIGN AND ABSENTEE LANDLORDS.—There are only 7 European landholders registered on the rent-roll of the District. The number of Musalmán landholders is 165, who pay a Government revenue of Rs. 32,545, or £3254, 10s. od. A great part, amounting probably to as much as five-eighths of the whole, is owned by absentee landlords.

ROADS AND MEANS OF COMMUNICATION.—There are no tolds in the District maintained and managed by the Public Works Department. The following is a list of the roads under local management, with their length and annual cost: - Metalled roads in the Civil Station of English Bázár: 3 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 300, or £,30. Unmetalled roads in the Civil Station: 5 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 100, or £, 10. Bridges on the above roads: annual cost, Rs. 660, or £66. Road from Umirti to Nimásarái: 7 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 140, or £14. Rájmahal road: 18 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 360, or £36. Dinájpur road, from Maldah Ghát to Sankrol: 25 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 500, or £50 Clearing jungle along 21 miles of the above road: annual cost, Rs. 300, or £30. Road from English Bázár to Nimásarái: 4 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 40, or £4. Tartipur road: 26 miles in length, annual cost, Rs. 520, or Road from Tartipur to Báraghariá: 10 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 100, or £10. Road from Simultalá to Sádullápur: 3 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 36, or £3, 125, od Road from Sastánitalá to Káliáchak: 11 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 165, or £16, 10s. od. Road from Rohanpur to Parbatipur: 12 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 100, or £10. Rohanpur road: 20 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 252, or £25, 48. od. Silvganj road: 2 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 15, or £1, 10s. od.

Kánsát road: 10 miles in length; annual cost, Rs. 100, or £10. Number of roads, 14; total length, 177 miles; total cost, including bridges and jungle clearing, Rs. 3688, or £368, 16s. od. These figures were returned in 1870, but since that date an important reform has been effected. In accordance with the new regulations of Government, the entire sum collected in the District from tolls and ferries will in the future be expended on the roads and other communications. This sum amounts on an average to Rs. 18,000, or £,1800, or nearly five times more than what was expended in 1870. The floods of 1871 caused serious damage to these roads, especially to those in the western portion of the District, near the Ganges. The bridges, however, stood very well, though in many cases the waters cut away the road, and left only the masonry abutments standing. The ferries are reported to be in good order. and they pay very well, especially the one across the Ganges to Ráimahal, and the one at Nimásarái across the Mahánandá to No large markets have lately sprung up along the principal routes of traffic. There are no canals in the District. nor railways. The railway, however, to Rajmahal is near enough to have an appreciable influence upon the intercourse of the District; and the railway to Darjiling, now in course of construction, will pass close to the south-eastern border.

MANUFACTURES: SILK.—The most important manufactures are silk and indigo. Silk, indeed, may be called the one staple produce of the District. Its manufacture may be regarded under two heads,—the reeling off of the raw silk from the cocoons, which is then exported in that state, and the weaving of silk goods, or of mixed silk and cotton cloth. The former industry continues to flourish, but the latter, which was a specialty of Maldah, is in a very decayed state.

The following short history of silk manufacture in the District is furnished by the Collector from local sources of information. There can be no doubt that there was silk in these parts during the reign of the last Hindu dynasty at Gaur. It appears that patta bastra silk cloths were then exported to the important cities of Dacca, Sonárgáon, and Saptágrám. The Muhammadan conquest is traditionally reported to have caused the manufacture to dwindle away, owing to some religious prohibitions against the wearing of silk. Soon after the desertion of Gaur the industry revived, or, as the native account puts it, silk-worms were brought back to the Mahá-

nandá by one Sitá Basani of Jalálpur. It is also recorded that about three hundred years ago one Shaikh Bhik, who used to trade in Maldehi cloths, such as kátár and musri, set sail for Russia with three ships laden with silk cloths, and that two of his ships were wrecked somewhere in the neighbourhood of the Persian Gulf. In those days the number of patterns was very much smaller than now. (The earliest mention in history of a English factory at Maldah is in the year 1686, as has been already mentioned in connection with the town of English Rizar.) A great impetus was given to the raising of silk-worms and the manufacture of silk, by the arrival of a French gentleman in these parts about the year 1760. His name is not preserved, but no doubt he was the precursor of the French factory which was soon afterwards established in the town of Maldah. The first silk filature of any importance was built in 1750 by Mr. Adney (?) at Singitali, and exists to the present day. The Residency house of the East India Company at English Bázár was not founded until 1770, by Mr. Thomas Henchman, whose name is still remembered. This building, which is now the official residence of the Collector, was originally erected as a manufactory of sufedd, or lacework on cloth, which was subsequently turned into an ordinary silk manufactory. The local historians say that the years between 1760 and 1790 were a period of great prosperity; and that the rearing of silk-worms and the manufacture of silk fabrics became the general occupation of nearly all classes of the people on both banks of the Mahananda in the neighbourhood of Maldah. This pro-crity, however, was of short duration; and when Dr. Buchanan Hamilton visited the place about 1810, the manufacture had already fallen into decay. The Company's factory was abolished, in common with all the other Commercial Residencies, in 1836, when the monopoly of the Indian and Chinese trade was withdrawn.

THE MANUFACTURE OF SILK FABRICS, known as Maldehi cloths, was always confined to native capital, and carried on by native artisans. These fabrics are very numerous both in colour and pattern, some being made of silk alone, and others of silk and cotton mixed. The principal sorts are called by the following characteristic names:—(1) Mazchhar, or riplets of the river; (2) bulbulchasm, or nightingales' eyes; (3) kalintarákshi, or pigeons' eyes; (4) chánd tárá, or moon and stars. These patterns differ somewhat from those known as peacock's neck and sunshade, made in Mur-

shidabad, but the process of manufacture is the same. The thread is dyed before being woven, and different-coloured threads are crossed in the loom, such as green on a red ground, or red on a blue ground. The cloths are bought up by the mahdjans on the spot, and find a sale in Calcutta and Benares. The industry is in a very languishing state, and the annual value of the manufacture is estimated by the Collector at not more than Rs. 5000 to Rs. 6000, or £500 to £600.

THE MANUFACTURE OF RAW SILK or silk thread is, on the other hand, in a flourishing condition. It is largely carried on both with European and native capital. The European working concerns are seven in number, and the majority belong to Messrs. Watson & Co. of Rájsháhí. A French firm from Lyons, MM. Louis Poyen & Cie., have lately established themselves in Maldah; and to their manager, Mr. S. J. Andrews, is due the first introduction of steam power into a filature in the District. These concerns turn out on an average about 620 maunds or about 454 hundredweights of raw silk per annum, of which the value is estimated by the Collector at about Rs. 620,000, or £,62,000. The filatures or silk reels under native management may perhaps number about 3000, turning out some 1500 maunds or about 1100 hundredweights of raw silk in the year, valued at Rs. 900,000, or £90,000. The total annual produce of silk thread spun in the District and exported in that state would thus amount to 2120 maunds or about 1554 hundredweights, of the value of Rs. 1,520,000, or £152,000. It is estimated that 1 maund of cocoons produces on an average from 2 sers 4 chhaláks to 2 sers 6 chhaláks of reeled silk, which is at the proportion of a little over 5 per cent. No less than 35,000 maunds or 25,000 hundredweights of cocoons would therefore be required on an average to produce the above quantity of raw silk. find the total out-turn of cocoons in the District, there must be added to this about 25,000 maunds or 18,300 hundredweights of cocoons, which are exported in that condition to Jangipur in Murshidabad and elsewhere. This would give a total of 60,000 maunds or 43,300 hundredweights of cocoons as the annual produce of the District. The lowest value that can be put upon this is Rs. 1,800,000, or £,180,000; and almost the whole of this sum finds its way into the hands of the silk-worm rearers. To rear this quantity of cocoons, the Collector estimates that from 50,000 to 60,000 highas or nearly 20,000 acres of land must annually be under mulberry cultivation. This is his lowest estimate; and in a favourable year he is of opinion that these figures are largely exceeded. The silk reeled off in the European factories is exported almost entirely to Europe. That wound under native management, which is of less even quality, is principally bought up by local makijans, and sold in Calcutta, Benares, and other large towns.

THE PROCESSES OF SILK MANUFACTURE SIXTY YEARS AGO.-The following description is condensed from the claborate account given by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, who carefully inspected the factories in the Mahananda valley in the year 1810, and recorded his researches in his Ms. volumes which deal with Dinajpur and Purnish. The manufacture was even then in a decaying condition, and is now still less active, but there seems no reason to suppose that the processes then in use have undergone any important change. The manufacture of cloth made from silk alone and of silk mixed with cotton is conducted in precisely the same way. The thread is always dyed before being woven, and the process of dyeing is performed by the weavers themselves or the female members of their families. The silk is first bleached, which is done by steeping it in boiling water with soap, and drying it in the sun. operation one quarter of the weight of the silk is lost. The dyes used are very numerous, and include the following: -Turmeric, which gives a bright but perishable yellow, the wood of the jack tree (Artocarous integrifolia), which also gives a good yeilow, less bright but more permanent; safflower (Carthamus tinctorius) gives two beautiful colours, known as gillabi and kusum, both a kind of rosered; manjit (Rubia munjista) gives a fixed red colour, and when applied after jackwood produces a golden colour called sonala, resembling that of new copper; a preparation called maski, of which iron is the chief ingredient, combined with wheat flour, molasses, and butter, yields a variety of colours, all more or less dark, as the name implies. There are three shades of colour called udd, which is a dark red, like Russian leather. The first is produced by haritaki (Terminalia Chebula), the second by chamallati (a species of Casalpinia), and the third by alum; but for the satisfactory production of all three, the silk must have been previously dyed with lac, and should be afterwards steeped in maski. A dye called labang, karnashuli, or clove colour, is a fixed brown. It is produced by soaking the silk successively in alum, a decoction of jackwood, alum again, manjit, chamallati, and finally maski. Panduki, a well-fixed blac, VOL VII.

from the name of a flower, is also produced from a combination of the various simple dyes already mentioned. These are the dyes for the silk thread. The cotton thread is always dyed one of the three following colours:—(1) Sálu, a well-fixed light pomegranate colour; (2) udá, a dark red of various shades, developed out of No. 1; and (3) kusum, a beautiful light red, but not well fixed. These cotton dyes are all formed out of a combination of those before described. The materials of these dyes are mostly grown in the immediate neighbourhood, and the weavers require no apparatus beyond a few earthen pots. For weaving they use a loom of extremely imperfect structure, and a few sticks for warping. The preliminary process of warping is performed by the women, who take a spindle in each hand, and lay two threads of the length required round some sticks placed upright in the ground, repeating this by two threads at a time until the warp is completed. The Maldehi cloth consists of a silk warp and cotton woof woven very thin, the warp being generally disposed in stripes of various colours, but the woof is all of the same dye. The fabric is of two sorts,—the one called ildchi, in which both sides of the material are alike, as in taffeta; and the other called musri, in which one side differs from the other, as with satin. Of each sort there is an immense variety of patterns. which may be roughly ranged under the two following classes:-1st. When one stripe is very narrow, and the other very broad, the cloth is called golbadan; 2d, when the spots and stripes are waved. the cloth is called kithir. Kithir cloth is slightly the more expensive of the two. These are the names primarily applicable to the mixed cloth, but they have been transferred indiscriminately to the cloth made entirely of silk, the manufacture of which is said to have been first introduced by Mr. Henchman, the Commercial Resident at English Bázár. Dr. B. Hamilton was of opinion that in the taste exhibited in these patterns, and in other respects also, the weavers of Maldah were much inferior to those of Bangalore. He thought that both these manufactures were probably introduced from the north-west by the Muhammadans. The total value of Maldehi cloth exported annually was estimated by Dr. B. Hamilton at Rs. 250,000, or £25,000; it has now, as previously stated, fallen to Rs. 6000, or £,600.

Indigo also forms a not unimportant production of the District. In 1873 the Collector reported that there were upwards of twenty factories at work, belonging to some seven different concerns, and

that the out-turn of the previous season had been about 4000 maunds, or nearly 3000 hundredweights. The value of this, at the average selling prices then prevailing, would amount to about Rs. 800,000, or £80,000. To produce this quantity of indigo, not less than from 70,000 to 80,000 bighds, or from 23,000 to 26,000 acres, must have been grown with the plant. As in other parts of Bengal, the greater part of the indigo is grown and manufactured by European capital and under European supervision, but in Maldah there are a few wealthy natives owning indigo factories. The Collector has furnished the following statistics for the year 1870 for some of the concerns in the District:—

AVERAGE AREA, ANNUAL OUTLAY, AND OUT-TURN OF FOUR INDIGO CONCERNS IN MALDAN DISTRICT.

Names of Co	Names of Concerns.		Area cultiv		Angual	Outlay	Annual Out turn		
Káliáchak,	•		Aichás 28,000	acres. 9.333	<i>rujeri</i> 100,000	16,000	maunds. 1,100	805	
Matrapur,			13,000	4.333	75,000	7,500	500	366	
Tartipur, .			15,000	5,000	100,000	10,000	600	439	
Singátalá, .	•	•	5,000	1,666	30,000	3,000	250	183	

The number of labourers in the Káliáchak concern was thus returned by the manager, Mr. J. Brown:—Rayats cultivating indigo, and their servants, 5663; kámat ploughing coolies, 10; boatmen, 2052; manufacturing coolies, 2189; carters, 635; servants paid monthly, 444; miscellaneous, 99: total, 11,092. The number of labourers employed in the Matrapur concern was thus returned by the manager, Mr. Cumming:—Rayats cultivating indigo, and their regular servants, 4200; kámat ploughing coolies, 1150; boatmen, 400; manufacturing coolies, 975; carters, 400; servants paid monthly, 114; miscellaneous, 450: total, 7689. The mode of cultivation and the processes used in the manufacture are the same in this District as in other indigo-growing tracts of Bengal. The only remaining specialty in the manufactures of Maldah is work in brass metal, which is carried on with considerable skill by the kánsiárs of Nawábganj, in the south of the District.

THE CONDITION OF THE MANUFACTURING CLASSES is most favourable. They are described by the Collector as being far

better off than any other class of people in the District. Their average wages vary from Rs. 5 to Rs. 8 a month, or from £6 to £9, 128, od. a year. The great majority of them are small capitalists, who manufacture in their own houses and on their own account. The distinction between capital and labour is strengly marked only in the case of the indigo factories and the larger silk filatures. The usual system of advances is adopted in both these cases. It is not known that any ancient manufactures or processes of workmanship formerly used in the District have now become extinct.

The following table shows the number of skilled workers, mechanics, and artisans, arranged under their respective trades, according to the District Compilation based upon the Census of 1872:—

MANUFACTURING CLASSES AND ARTISANS OF MALDAH DISTRICT.

Occupation.	No of Male Adults	Occupation.	No of Male Adults	Occupation.	No of Male Adults
Indigo manufac		Jewellers	3	Makers of looms,	2
turers	6	Watchmaker,	i	Cotton-carders, .	143
Fat-worker, .		Potters, .	146	Cotton spinners,	1 12
Silk manufacturers,	7	Cabanetmakers	ر ا	Weavers of cotton,	4654
Brick-masons (<i>rdj-</i>)		Makers of mats,	3+	We ivers of silk, .	287
mistris),	680	Maker of fans	1	Diers,	6;
Brick makers,	2	Makers of baskets,	IH.	Lulors,	3(n)
Silver,	_ 33	Makers of brids,	38	Cip-makers,	1 2
Carpenters, .	863	Makers of toys.	30	Good lace maker,	
Thatchers,	75 B	Makers of hookahs,		Shormakers,	872
Carriage builders.	16	Makers of musical		Oroment-makers,	9
Cart-builders,	40	instruments,	3	Umbrella makers,	7
but-builders,	14	Makery of lac-	1	Commy bag makers	. e
lilack-miths	765	quered ware.	50	l inbroiderers,	7
Cutlers,	2	Makers of garlands	41	Jute-spinners,	7
Braziers,	561	Turners,	27	50k spinners,	107
Linmen,	8	Shell curvers, .	1/1	l'ingravers,	1 2
Goldsmiths,	21.7	Cane-workers, Workers in pith	++	Papar-maker,	į 3
Gold-washers,	4	(w/u).	6	Total,	13.360

COMMERCE AND TRADE.—The principal articles of export from the District are—raw silk and cocoons, silk cloths, indigo, brass metal work, rice and other kinds of grain, pulses, and fruits, especially mango. The chief silk mart is Amánigany-hát, whither buyers come from the neighbouring Districts of Murshidabád and Rájsháhí to make their purchases. Tuesday is the usual hát day, and on that day silk is often sold, according to the Collector's estimate, to the

value of from Rs. 20,000 to Rs. 50,000, or £2000 to £5000. Minor silk markets are also held at Bholáhát and Kásimpur. The cocoons and the raw silk from the native filatures are chiefly exported to Murshidábád, while the European wound silk goes straight to Calcutta on its way to France. The woven silk cloths find purchasers mostly at Calcutta and Benares. Indigo is exported direct to Calcutta. The trade in brass metal work is mainly carried on at Nawabganj, the place of manufacture. The most important seats of commerce in the District, where trade is extensively carried on in food stuffs, are English Bázár, Maldah, Rohanpur, Nawabgani, and Haiatpur. The principal fairs or religious gatherings are at Ramkail, held in June; Kansat, Sadullapur, and Kunra, in March; Rathbarl, in May; Panduah, in October and November; and Powal in March. Only petty traffic, however, is carried on at these fairs, in which the religious element predominates. The real trade of the District is conducted at the market towns above mentioned, and also at various recognised landing-places along the bank of the Ganges. The winter crop (aman haimantik) of rice is that alone which yields a surplus for exportation; and in favourable years it is largely despatched up the Ganges towards the north-west. There are no means of ascertaining accurately what this quantity may be, but, taking into consideration the number of the large markets and the number of sales at each during the season, the Collector conjectures that the annual export amounts to not less than 250,000 maunds of rice, or 183,000 hundredweights, of the average value of Rs. 500,000, or £50,000. Of the cold-weather crops, peas and mustard are also exported, but to what extent it is impossible to say. The general practice on the Ganges is for the boats to moor wherever they find in the vicinity an arat or place for weighing and selling the grain, which has been previously entrusted to the aratdir by the cultivators themselves, or by bepairis. The fruit of the mango is exported down the Mahananda to Murshidabad, and at the height of the season creates a very busy traffic. The articles imported in exchange for these exports comprise cotton cloth, jute, cocoa-nuts, betel-nuts. paper, chi or melted butter, oil, sill wood, gram, camphor, salt, cur or molasses, sugar, sulphur, copper and pewter, káshá, ginger, haridrá or turmeric, spices of all kinds, and pepper. The exports, however, as comprising almost the entire manufactures of the District and a considerable proportion of the agricultural produce, largely exceed the imports in quantity and in value. A steady accumulation of coin must therefore be going on within the District, at least in the hands of the small traders in silk and cocoons. The large manufacturers are Europeans, and many of the banids and mahdjans are natives of the North-West Provinces or Behar, so that the profits of these classes are ultimately remitted away from the District. Concerning the channels along which trade passes, the Collector thus remarks:—'The District possesses so great advantages of water communication, that the grain and commercial traffic is carried on entirely by boats. It is not probable that this river traffic will be interfered with until there is a railroad through the District; and the new line to Dárjiling will not make any material difference.'

RIVER TRADE STATISTICS.—Since the preceding paragraphs were printed, elaborate figures illustrating the boat traffic of Bengal have been issued in the form of a Government Resolution, dated 18th October 1875. The following statistics, taken from this Resolution, give accurate details of the great trade which is conducted at the various river marts of Maldah, or is carried along the rivers of the District.

The traffic that passes up and down the Ganges is registered at Sáhibganj, and the goods consigned to and from Calcutta are registered at Nadiyá for the Jalangi route, which almost monopolizes the trade from Maldah in this direction. In the returns thus obtained, it has been found impossible to separate the actual produce of Maldah from that which is really grown in other Districts, especially in Dinájpur, and only consigned from Maldah marts. This confusion, however, is of the less importance for the present purpose, as under any circumstances the whole of the traffic thus ascertained must pass along the Mahánandá and its tributaries, which are essentially Maldah rivers.

The Sahibganj register gives the total quantity of rice despatched up the Ganges from both Maldah and Dinajpur as 1,628,794 maunds or 59,625 tons in 1872, and as 1,538,898 maunds or 56,334 tons in 1873. In 1874, the failure of the dman harvest caused the total exportation from these two Districts to dwindle to no more than 53,275 maunds or 1950 tons; and from the same cause there is recorded in that year an extraordinary importation of 160,000 maunds or 5857 tons of Government rice down-stream from Sahibganj into Haiatpur in Maldah, which was at that time a distressed District. The above totals for 1872 and 1873 represent the great

bulk of all the rice that is sent up-country from Bengal. About one-half of it is consigned to the North-Western Provinces; Patna takes the larger portion of the remainder, and then Sáran. By far the greater proportion is referred in the Sáhibganj returns to Maldah, according to the place of export; but as a matter of fact, it is indisputable that almost the whole of it is grown within the limits of Dinájpur. The detailed returns show that Rohanpur on the Purnabhalá has the most extensive traffic in up-country rice of all the Maldah towns. In 1873 its export reached 407,489 maunds or 14,917 tons.

The Sahibgani returns also show that the total quantity of consignments of all sorts despatched up the Ganges from the various marts of Maldah District alone amounted in 1872 to 1,143,464 maunds or 41,858 tons; in 1873 to 782,800 maunds or 28,656 tons; and in 1874 to only 95,407 maunds or 3492 tons. By far the larger portion of these exports has already been included with the Gangesborne exports of rice. Of the various marts, Rohanpur, on an average, takes the lead, then come Maldah town, Hauftpur, and Muchaf, in the order given. The same returns show that the total consignments down the Ganges to the marts of Maldah amounted in 1872 to 242,018 maunds or 8859 tons; in 1873 to 213.551 maunds or 7817 tons; and in 1874 to 297,748 maunds or 10,899 tons. The total for the latter year is unduly swollen by the exceptional importation of rice on Government account from the Santal Parganás. Concerning the character of these imports and their places of shipment no information is afforded, except that from 100,000 to 150,000 maunds or from 3660 to 5491 tons of sugar are annually imported into Maldah from the North-Western Provinces. As it is known that the Rájsháhí Division, for the most part, exports sugar, it has been conjectured that this large item may partly be explained by a re-exportation of the article.

The Calcutta trade of Maldah consists chiefly of the export of rice and the import of salt. In 1873, 53,000 maunds or 1940 tons of rice were registered at Nadiyá as consigned from Maldah to the metropolis, along the Jalangí route. In 1874 this traffic absolutely ceased. The total amount of salt imported into Maldah by the three Nadiyá rivers amounted in 1874 to 110,082 maunds or 4029 tons, of which total almost all came up the Jalangí. It has not been found possible to estimate with any accuracy the amount of cotton piece-goods which are yearly imported through Calcutta into Maldah. It must be remembered that the above figures

stand for only a small portion of the entire traffic which is carried southwards from Maldah. To represent fairly the busy scene of commerce which is displayed on the Mahánandá and its tributaries, there should be added the rice of Dinájpur, the tobacco of Purniah and Jálpaigurí, and the gunny-bags from the great mart of Dulálganj, in Purniah; for all these must pass through the heart of Maldah District on their way to their final destinations.

CAPITAL AND INTEREST.—The profits acquired by commerce are not hoarded, but are either employed as capital in the extension of trade and manufacture, or are invested in ornaments for the females. Even when capital is accumulated by the cultivators, it is seldom or never hoarded at the present day, but is employed in bringing further tracts of land under cultivation. The current rate of interest, when the borrower pledges some article of personal use, is from 3 to 6 pie per rupee a month, equivalent to from 182 to 371 per cent, per annum, but in these loans it is held essential that the value of the article pawned should be double the amount advanced. In large transactions, when the lender is secured by a lien on moveable property, the rate of interest varies from 12 to 24 per cent. per annum. In similar transactions, when a mortgage is given upon houses or lands, the rate of interest would not be more than 18 per cent, or less than 12 per cent, per annum. the case of petty advances to cultivators, whether the lender has only the personal security of the borrower, or takes in addition a lien upon the crops, the rate of interest is about the same, viz. from 6 pic to 1 dund on the rupee per month, or from 374 to 75 per cent. per annum. Advances of this kind, however, are usually made only until the coming harvest; the advance is made in the shape of seed-grain, and the capital with the interest is also repaid in kind. A fair return on capital expended in the purchase of a landed estate is reckoned to be about 12 per cent. There are two banking establishments in the District.—one at Maldah, belonging to Rái Dhanpat Sinh Bahádur and Lakshmipat Sinh, and the other at English Bázár, belonging to Pares Náth Sháh & Brothers. The business of money-lending, however, is chiefly conducted by the shopkeepers in every village, who combine their special trade with the advancing of petty loans.

European capital is solely employed in the indigo and silk manufacture, and there only in the larger concerns. The Collector is of opinion that the amount thus invested is somewhere between

10 and 15 likhs of rupees, or between £100,000 and £150,000, and that the profits on this capital may average between 12 and 15 per cent. Of native capital he estimates that about 30 or 35 likhs of rupees, or from £300,000 to £350,000, are employed in the various manufactures; which makes the total capital of the District devoted to manufacture amount to £400,000 or £500,000.

INSTITUTIONS, ETC.—There are no important societies or institutions in the District apart from a charitable dispensary, which will be described on a later page. No newspaper is published in the District, nor does any printing press exist.

Incomes and Income Tax.—The Collector returns the estimated income of the District, for the purposes of the Income Tax of 1870, as follows:—Incomes between £50 and £75 per annum, total, £218,400; incomes between £75 and £100, total, £24,600; incomes between £100 and £150, total, £17,250; incomes between £150 and £200, total, £13,000; incomes over £200, total, £29,300: grand total of all the incomes in the District above £50, £302,550. The income tax of that year was at the rate of 3½ per cent., which on the above estimated total would give £9454, 14s. 9d. The actual net amount yielded that year was only £4644, 10s. od., which sufficiently shows that the total of the estimate is not to be trusted. In the following year, 1871-72, the rate of the income tax was reduced to 1½ per cent., and the minimum of incomes liable to assessment raised to £75 per annum. The net amount realized in that year was £1341, 8x od.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—It is impossible to present a comparative view which should represent in a trustworthy form the changes that have taken place in the finances of the District. Tables are subjoined of the receipts and expenditure for the years 1832-33 (the year when the District was created), 1850-51, and 1870-71, but their accuracy must be regarded with caution. The trifling amount of the land revenue in the first of these years shows that the entire collections had not been at once transferred to the new treasury. For this year and for 1850-51, various items appear on each side of the balance sheet which are transfers or mere matters of accounts, and which must be eliminated in order to find the net receipts and expenditure, as has been done in a foot-note to the tables. On the other hand, it is evident that various items, such as jails and police, which figure largely in the present accounts of the District, have been omitted from these early tables;

but no materials exist to furnish the necessary means of correction. For the year 1870-71 the figures come from various sources. far as possible the reports of the various Departments for that year have been made use of, but many of the items have come from the budget estimates of the year, and are therefore of doubtful The general conclusions yielded by these tables may be thus summed up:—In the year 1832-33, when the District was first constituted, the net receipts were £,5785, 128. od.; in 1850-51 they amounted to £36,185; and in 1870-71 they had reached £59,492, 198. 3d. In the year 1832-33 the net expenditure was £2549, 18s. od.; in 1850-51 it became £8605, 6s. od.; and in 1870-71 it had risen to £,15,290, 14s. 1d. As far as regards the apparent enormous increase in both totals since 1832-33, no safe conclusions can be drawn, for the reasons already mentioned. A better conception of the real increase in the revenue and in the cost of administration may be gained by comparing the totals for the shorter interval of 20 years from 1850-51 to 1870-71, which may be regarded as sufficiently accurate for this purpose. In that period the receipts increased by £, 23,307, 198. 3d., or nearly 64 per cent., and the expenditure was augmented by £,6685, 8s. id., or more than 77 per cent.

LAND RIVENUE.—The most important source of revenue has always been derived from the land tax, which still furnishes considerably more than half of the total receipts. In 1850-51 the land tax yielded £27,045, 145, od., and in 1870-71, £32,323, 165, od., an increase of £5278, 28, od., or 18 per cent.

In the year $1832\cdot33$, when the District was created, the total number of estates on the rent-roll of the District was 95; the number of registered proprietors or coparceners paying rent direct to Government was 99; the total land revenue paid was £3956, 16s. od., the average for each estate being £41, 12s. od., and for each proprietor, £40. In $1850\cdot51$ the number of estates was 489, and of proprietors or coparceners, 794; and the total land revenue paid amounted to £25,821, 10s. od., the average per estate being £52, 18s. od., and the average per proprietor, £32, 10s. od. In 1870·71 the number of estates was 536; the number of proprietors, 1031; the amount of land revenue, £32,079, 10s. od.; the average per estate, £59, 16s. od.; and the average per proprietor, £31, 2s. od. The figures for the first year are of no value for comparison, as the

[Scalence continued on page 110.

GRUSS BALANCE SHEET OF MALDAH DISTRICT FOR 1832-33.

To obtain the net revenue, items New 3, 4, 5, and 6 must be deducted from the revenue side as matters of deposit or account. To obtain the net outlay, items Nos 1 and 2 must be deducted from the expenditure ade. The net revenue for 1832-33, therefore, would be 65785, 124. od ; the net expenditure, 62549, 185. od.

GROSS BALANCE SHFET OF MALDAH DISTRICT FOR 1850-51.

Revente.		Expenditure.
1. Lard revenue, 2. Abbir or Excise remittance, 3. Police thinitial Jane, 4. Profit and loss, 5. Food Office remittance, 6. Judicial remittance, 7. Civil fund, etc., 8. Military orphan fund, 9. Judicial charges general, 10. Weverne charges general, 11. Uncos envired service family pension fund, 12. Zamfudirl rasis of fees, 13. Zamfudirl rasis of fees, 14. Supernstrudent of Stamps, 16. Civil suits, 17. Law charges, 18. Interest, 19. Loan at \$ per cent, 19. Loan at \$ per cent, 20. Revenue reinittance,	. £27,045 14 0 5,005 14 0 4 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	1. Revenue remittance, 1,003 14 0 15 14 15 15 14 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15
Total gross revenue, .	. £36,754 14 0	Total gross expenditure, £21,420 6 0

To obtain the net revenue, items Nos. 4, 7, 8, 11, 13, 18, 19, and 20 must be deducted from the revenue side as matters of deposit The net revenue for 1850or account. To obtain the net outlay, items Nos. 1, 8, and 16 must be deducted from the expenditure side. 51, therefore, would be £36,185; the net expenditure, £8605, 6s. od.

BALANCE SHEET OF MALDAH DISTRICT FOR 1870-71.

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		Salaries of covenanted District officers,	United the salary of Commissioner of the Division.								.:								
Expenditure		۾.	É	fail establishment and maintenance,							tewards for hilling wild beasts, etc.								.:
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figures opposite tems Now. 11, 12, and 13 on the receipt sule, and items Now. 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9 on the expenditure sule, have been obtained from the various departments to which they belong. The remaining figures are furnished by the Collector. The table does net include any municipal taxation, nor the cost of the rural police, nor that portion of the expenses of education which is not paid by From this table all matters of account, etc., have been excluded, and therefore it cabilots the actual net revenue and expenditure. Covernment

Sentence continued from page 106.]

District had not then been fully constituted; but the figures for the two latter periods show that while the number of estates is on the increase, the number of proprietors and coparceners is increasing at a much more rapid rate. It will be observed that in each case the total of the land revenue differs from that given in the preceding tables, which is probably to be explained by the circumstance that in one case the 'current demand,' and in the other case only the amount actually realized, has been furnished by the Collector.

In 1873 the total number of estates was returned at 560. Of these, 51 were either under direct Government management or under the Court of Wards; the remaining 509 were thus subdivided according to the amount of revenue paid:—Under £10 per annum, 290, yielding a total revenue of £566, 16s. od.; over £10 per annum, 219, yielding £27,036, 10s. od.

RENT CASES INSTITUTED UNDER ACT X. OF 1859.—It has been already stated that the operation of this Act in enhancing rents has been irregular in this District. That application to its provisions is not uniformly on the increase, is shown by the following statement of rent cases instituted under Act x., or under laws based upon that Act. In 1861-62 the number of original suits was 562, and of miscellaneous cases 46; in 1862-63 the original suits were 703, the miscellaneous cases 147; in 1866-67 the original suits were 416, the miscellaneous cases 169; in 1868-69 the original suits were 489, the miscellaneous cases 171.

PROTECTION TO PERSON AND PROPERTY.—In 1813, the first year of which records remain, there were within the District 1 magisterial court and 1 civil and revenue court; in 1850 there were 2 magisterial and 4 civil and revenue courts; in 1860-61 there were 5 magisterial, 2 civil, and 5 revenue courts; in 1870-71 there were 5 magisterial, 2 civil, and 5 revenue courts. The number of covenanted civil servants stationed in the District was 1 in 1813, 2 in 1850, 2 in 1860-61, and 2 in 1870-71.

Police Statistics.—The police machinery for the protection of the District has of late years been rendered far more efficient than of old. At the present day Maldah is divided into the following nine police circles or thámis:—(1) English Bázár; (2) Maldah; (3) Gárgáribá (now-moved to Pránpur); (4) Kharbá; (5) Gájol; (6) Káliáchak; (7) Gumáshtápur; (8) Sibganj; (9) Nawábganj. The present police force of Maldah District consists of three distinct

bodies, namely, the regular or District police, a municipal police for the protection of the towns, and a village watch or rural police. The total strength and cost of maintenance of each of these bodies are as follows:—

THE REGULAR POLICE consisted of the following strength at the end of 1872:- 1 superior European officer or District Superintendent of Police, maintained at a salary of Rs. 500 a month, or £600 a year: 3 subordinate officers on a salary of upwards of Rs. 100 a month, or £,120 a year, and 40 officers on less than Rs. 100 a month. or £120 a year, maintained at a total cost of Rs. 1580 per month. or £1896 a year, or an average pay of Rs. 36. 11. 10 a month, or £44, 18. od. a year, for each subordinate officer; and 230 foot police constables, maintained at a total cost of Rs. 1546 a month, or £1855, 4s. od. a year, or an average pay of Rs. 6. 11. 6 a month, or £,8, 1s. 3d. a year for each man. The other expenses connected with the District police are a sum of Rs. 100 a month, or £,120 a year, as travelling expenses for the District Superintendent; Rs. 175. 10. 8 a month, or £210, 16s. od. a year, for pay and travelling allowances for his establishment; and Rs. 607. 12. 0 a month, or £,729, 6s. od. a year, for contingencies and all other expenses. bringing up the total cost of the regular police in Maldah District in 1872 to Rs. 4509. 6. 8 a month, or £5411, 6s. od. a year, and a total strength of 274 officers and men of all ranks. The area of Maldah District for the purposes of the Census was taken at 1813 square miles; and the total population in 1872 was found to be 676,426 souls. According to these figures, the total strength of the regular police is one man to every 6.61 square miles of the District area, or one man to every 2468 of the population. The annual cost of maintenance is Rs. 29. 13. 6 or £2, 198. 8 d. per square mile of area, or 1 annd 3 pies or 17d. per head of the population.

THE MUNICIPAL POLICE at the end of 1872 consisted of a force of 2 officers and 36 men, maintained at a total cost of Rs. 235. 5. 4 a month, or £282, 8s. od. a year. The Census Report returned the following two municipalities, containing a population of upwards of 5000 souls, namely, English Bázár 12,859, and Maldah 5262, total 18,121; giving an average of one policeman to every 476 of the population. The annual cost of the municipal police, as compared with the population protected, amounted in 1872 to 2 diniás 5 pies or 3 d. per head of the population.

THE RURAL POLICE or village watch consisted in 1872 of 1892 men,

maintained by the villagers at an estimated total cost for the year of Rs. 52,854 or £5285, 8s. od., equal to an annual charge of Rs. 29. 2. 5 or £2, 18s. 3\frac{3}{6}d. per square mile of area, or to 1 dnnd 3 pies or $1\frac{7}{6}d$. per head of the population; the strength of the force is equal to one man to every 0.95 of a square mile of area, or one man to every 357 of the population. Each village watchman has on an average the charge of 60 houses, and receives an average pay in money or lands of Rs. 2. 4. 9 a month, or £2, 15s. $1\frac{1}{2}d$. a year.

Including, therefore, the regular District police, the municipal or town police, and the rural constabulary, the machinery for protecting person and property in Maldah District consisted at the end of 1872 of a total force of 2204 officers and men, equal to an average of one man to every 0.82 of a square mile as compared with the area, or one man to every 306 souls as compared with the population. The estimated aggregate cost, both Government and private, of maintaining this force in 1872 amounted to Rs. 9149. 4. 0 a month, or £10,979, 2s. od. a year, equal to an annual charge of Rs. 60. 8. 11 or £6, 1s. 13d. per square mile of area, or 2 ánnás 7 pies or 33d. per head of the population.

Working of the Police.—During the year 1872, 1016 'cognisable' cases were reported to the police, of which 209 were discovered to be false, and 150 cases were not inquired into under section 117 of the Criminal Procedure Code, leaving a balance of 657 charges treated as 'true.' Convictions were obtained in 332 cases, or 50.53 per cent. of the 'true' cases, the proportion of 'true' cases being one to every 1029 of the population, and the proportion of cases convicted being one to every 2037 of the population. Of 'noncognisable' cases, 632 were instituted, in which process issued against 727 persons, of whom 389, or 53.50 per cent., were convicted; the proportion of persons convicted of 'non-cognisable' offences being one to every 1738 of the population.

The following details of the cases and convictions for different crimes and offences in 1872 are taken from the report of the Inspector-General of Police for that year. The 'cognisable' cases reported to the police were as follows:—Class I. Offences against the State, public tranquillity, safety, and justice—Offences relating to coin, stamps, and Government notes, 2 cases, 2 convictions, 4 persons tried, 4 convicted; offences against public justice, 5 cases, 4 convictions, 4 persons tried, 4 convicted; rioting or unlawful assembly, 10 cases, 6 convictions, 61 persons tried, 45 convicted;

personating public servant or soldier, 1 case from a previous year, person tried, none convicted. Class II. Serious offences against the person-Murder by poison, 1 case, 1 conviction, 2 persons tried, 1 convicted; other murders, 5 cases, 3 convictions, 13 persons tried, 6 convicted; attempts at murder, 1 case, 2 persons tried, none convicted; culpable homicide, 1 case, 1 conviction, 1 person tried and 1 convicted; rape, 12 cases, 3 convictions, 10 persons tried, 3 convicted; unnatural offences, 3 cases, 1 conviction, 3 persons tried, I convicted; exposure of infants or concealment of birth, r case, no convictions, a persons tried; attempt at and abetment of suicide, 5 cases, 2 convictions, 3 persons tried, 2 convicted: grievous hurt, 2 cases, no conviction; hurt by dangerous weapons. 8 cases, 2 convictions, 6 persons tried, 4 convicted; kidnapping or abduction, I case, no conviction; wrongful confinement or restraint in secret, or for purposes of extortion, 7 cases, 1 conviction, 17 persons tried, 4 convicted; criminal force to public servant or woman, or in attempt to commit theft or wrongfully confine, 5 cases, 3 convictions, 19 persons tried, 14 convicted; rash or negligent act causing death or grievous hurt, 1 case, no conviction. Class III. Serious offences against person and property—Dakáiti, 11 cases, 6 convictions, 58 persons tried, 28 convicted; common robberies, 4 cases, 3 convictions, 5 persons tried, 4 finally convicted; serious mischief and cognate offences, 7 cases, 3 convictions, 6 persons tried, 6 convicted; lurking house-trespass or housebreaking with intent to commit an offence, 209 cases, 16 convictions, 34 persons tried, 23 convicted; house-trespass with a view to commit an offence, or having made preparation for hurt, 2 cases, 1 conviction, 1 person tried, a convicted; receiving stolen property by dakditi or habitually, t case, no convictions. Class IV. Minor offences against the person -Wrongful restraint and confinement, 51 cases, 14 convictions, 61 persons tried, 32 convicted. Class V. Minor offences against property-Lurking house-trespass or housebreaking, 68 cases, 8 convictions, 14 persons tried, 9 convicted; cattle theft, 36 cases, 26 convictions, 26 persons tried, 20 finally convicted; ordinary theft, 316 cases, 75 convictions, 179 persons tried, 101 convicted; criminal breach of trust, 14 cases, 3 convictions, 9 persons tried, 4 finally convicted; receiving stolen property, 23 cases, 14 convictions, 31 persons tried, 18 finally convicted; criminal or house-trespass, 53 cases, 9 convictions, 46 persons tried, 15 convicted. Class VI. Other offences not specified above-Vagrancy and bad character, 12 cases, 2 con-VOL VII.

victions, 14 persons tried, 4 convicted; cognisable offences under the Gambling Act, 1 case, 1 conviction, 3 persons tried and all convicted; Excise laws, 28 cases, 20 convictions, 30 persons tried, 20 finally convicted; public and local nuisances, 1 ro cases, 100 convictions, 145 persons tried, 129 convicted. Total, 1016 cases, and 332 cases resulting in convictions. Percentage of convictions to total 'cognisable' cases, 32.69; 814 persons tried, and 508 convicted; percentage of persons convicted to persons tried, 62.40.

The number of cases instituted and of persons convicted in 'noncognisable' cases during 1872 is returned as follows:-Class I. Offences against the State, public tranquillity, etc.—Offences against public justice, 39 cases, 52 persons tried, 36 convicted; false evidence, false complaints, and claims, 34 cases, 37 persons tried, 12 convicted; offences by public servants, 7 cases, 4 persons tried, 1 convicted; forgery or fraudulently using forged documents, 4 cases, 8 persons tried, 4 convicted; offences relating to weighing and measuring, 5 cases, 5 persons tried, 4 convicted; rioting, unlawful assembly, affray, 3 cases, 13 persons tried, 13 convicted. Class II. Serious offences against the person—Causing miscarriage, 5 cases, 6 persons tried, 4 convicted. Class III. Serious offences against property-Extortion, 13 cases, 13 persons tried, none convicted. Class IV. Minor offences against the person-Hurt, 35 cases, 40 persons tried, 30 convicted; criminal force, 266 cases, 376 persons tried, 147 convicted. Class V. Minor offences against property-Cheating, 13 cases, 10 persons tried, 3 convicted; criminal misappropriation of property, 12 cases, 14 persons tried, 13 convicted: simple mischief, 48 cases, 45 persons tried, 16 convicted. Class VI. Other offences not specified above-Offences relating to marriage, 13 cases, 10 persons tried, 3 convicted; offences against religion, r case, no person tried; defamation, 14 cases, 7 persons tried, 3 convicted; intimidation and insult, 26 cases, 12 persons tried, 7 convicted; public and local nuisances, 1 case, no person tried; offences under chapters xviii., xx., xxi., and xxii. of the Criminal Procedure Code, 41 cases, 56 persons tried, 43 convicted; neglect of duty by police officers, 14 cases, 14 men tried, 12 convicted; cattle trespass, 22 cases, 32 persons tried, 22 convicted; breach of Jail Code, 14 cases, 14 persons tried, 14 convicted; breach of Ferry Law, 1 case, 1 person tried, 1 convicted; breach of Post Office Law, 1 case, 1 person tried, 1 convicted. Total, 632 cases:

670 persons tried, and 389 convicted. Proportion of persons convicted to persons tried, 58 of per cent.

Excluding 'false cases,' the total number of 'cognisable' and 'non-cognisable' cases investigated in Maldah District in 1872 was 1307, in which 897 persons were convicted, or one person convicted of an offence to every 754 of the District population.

JAIL STATISTICS.—There is only one jail in Maldah District, at the Civil Station of English Bázár. The following are the statistics relating to it for the years 1857-58, 1860-61, and 1870. They have been supplied by the Inspector-General of Jails, who states that for the two earlier years the figures must be received with caution, and looked upon as only approximating to correctness. Owing to defects in the forms of the returns from which those figures were collated, which cannot now be remedied, in some cases the prisoners are counted twice over. Under-trial prisoners at the end of a previous year, who were subsequently convicted during the year to which the figures refer, appear to be returned under both heads. Since 1870, however, an improved method of preparing the returns has been introduced, and the statistics for that year may be accepted as correct.

In 1857-58, the first year for which materials are available, the average daily number of prisoners in the jail was 57, and the total number of civil, criminal, and under-trial prisoners admitted during the year was 218. The total number of discharges was 265, thus classified: - Transferred, 65; released, 198; escaped, 1, and died, For 1860-61 the returns show a daily average number of 53 prisoners, the total number admitted during the year being 326. The discharges were—transferred, 47, released, 278; died, 4; executed, 1; total, 330. In 1870 the average daily jail population was 59, and the number of admissions was 404. The discharges numbered in all 432, of which 77 were transfers, 351 releases, 1 escape, 1 death, and 2 executions. In 1857 58 the proportion of prisoners admitted into the jail hospital was 263.15 per cent., and the proportion of deaths was 1.75 of the mean jail population. 1860-61 the proportion of admissions into hospital fell to 169.81, but the proportion of deaths rose to 7.54. In 1870, the proportion of admissions into hospital rose again to 272'88, and the proportion of deaths fell to 1.60, about what each had been in the first of these three years.

The average cost of maintaining each prisoner, including rations, establishment, hospital charges, clothing, contingencies, and all

other charges except that of the prison police guard, is thus returned for various periods by the Inspector-General of Jails:—
In 1854-55 the average gross cost of maintenance per prisoner amounted to Rs. 45, or £4, 10s. od.; in 1857-58, to Rs. 83. 8. 9, or £8, 7s. 1d.; in 1860-61, to Rs. 55. 13. 10, or £5, 11s. 8\frac{3}{4}d.; and in 1870, to Rs. 46. 7. 10, or £4, 12s. 11\frac{3}{4}d. The cost of the prison police guard in 1870 was Rs. 33. 10. 11 or £3, 7s. 4\frac{3}{4}d. per prisoner, making a total cost to Government for that year of Rs. 80. 2. 9 or £8, 0s. 4\frac{1}{4}d. per head. The Inspector-General of Jails, in his report for 1870, returns the total cost of the jail, inclusive of the jail guard, but excluding the cost of alterations and repairs, at Rs. 5193. 8. 1, or £519. Excluding the cost of the jail guard, which is included in the general police budget of the District, the cost of the jail in 1870 amounted to Rs. 3709. 1. 2, or £370, 18s. 1\frac{3}{4}d.

Jail manufactures and other remunerative industries are carried on to a small extent in Maldah jail, and the profits hence derived contribute in some degree towards the maintenance of the jail. In 1854-55 the gross receipts arising from jail manufactures amounted to £88, 19s. od., and the charges incurred therewith to £46, 14s. 6d., which leaves an excess of receipts over charges or profit of £42, 4s. 6d.; the average earnings of each prisoner employed on manufactures amounting to £1, 18s. 5d. 1857-58 the receipts from manufactures were £9, 5s. od., the charges £4, 6s. 2d., and the profit £4, 18s. 10d.; making the average earnings of each manufacturing prisoner £1, 13s. od. In 1860-61 the receipts were £,22, 1s. od., the charges £,12, 2s. 9d., and the profits £9, 18s. 3d.; the average earnings being £1, 10s. 6d. In 1870 the total credits amounted to £231, 4s. 3d., the total debits amounted to £199, 158, 3d., leaving a surplus or profit of £31, 9s. od.; the average earnings of each prisoner employed in manufactures was £2, 125. 5d. Deducting the profits derived from prison labour from the total charges of the jail (and excluding the cost of the police guard), the net cost to Government of the Maldah jail in 1870 amounted to £339, 9s. 12d.

The statistics of Maldah jail in 1872 are as follow:—Average daily number of civil prisoners, 5'47; under-trial prisoners, 28'44; labouring convicts, 46'07; non-labouring convicts, 1'93,—making a total of 81'91, of whom 5'60 were females. According to the results of the Census of 1872, these figures give one prisoner always in jail to every 8258 of the total District population; one male

prisoner to every 4338 of the male population, and one female prisoner to every 61,666 of the female population. The total cost of the jail, excluding public works and the manufacturing department, amounted to £619, 11s. 8ld., or an average cost per head of £7, 10s. 74d. The financial results of the jail manufactures during the year were as follow:—The total credits, including stocks remaining on hand at the close of the year, amounted to £164, 1s. od., and the total debits to £171, 3s. 112d.; leaving an excess of debits over credits, or loss, £7, 28. 11 d. The actual money cost of the manufacturing department during the year was £141, 11s. 84d., and the cash remitted to the treasury on account of manufactures was £,84, 18s. 21d.; leaving an actual money loss of £56, 138. 6d. Out of the 46 labouring convicts, 23.52 were employed in manufactures and in gardening; the remainder were either employed in jail duties and public works, or were in hospital, or weak and old and unable to work. The prisoners actually engaged in profitable industries were thus distributed: - Gunny weaving, '10; gardening, 2'70; cloth weaving, '04; brick manufacturing, 3.01; bamboo, rattan, and reed work, 61; oil pressing, 1'73; string manufacturing, 8'78; flour grinding, 4'37; paper making, '29; miscellaneous, '99: total, 23'52.

The Inspector-General of Jails, in his annual report for 1872, speaks thus of the Maldah jail:- 'It is a small, brick walled, tiled building, with cooksheds and worksheds attached, in a square enclosure surrounded by a wall only 81 feet high. The hospital is outside. The total accommodation is not greater than in many lock-ups, and is totally inadequate for the criminal wants of the District, as shown by the experience of the past year. The number of under-trial prisoners repeatedly rose beyond the whole capacity of the jail according to rule. These prisoners, of course, cannot be removed, but the convicts were frequently transferred to the jails in Rajshahí and other neighbouring Districts.' Since this date measures have been approved by Government for making additions to the building, and for rendering it more secure. 'In spite of considerable overcrowding, there was but little sickness, and only 4 deaths. One prisoner died from cholera, which appears to have been only sporadic; the others died from diseases contracted before they entered the jail, two being actually brought in in a moribund condition.' With regard to the origin, etc. of the prisoners, it is stated that 'the Muhammadans, though below the

Hindus in the actual population of the District, exceed them in criminality. Of the Hindu criminals a large part belong to the low semi-aboriginal tribes, who abound in the District. The Chains and Tiors especially are noted thieves. No Tior girl will accept a husband who has not distinguished himself by dexterity in thieving; yet jail is considered a disgrace to these castes, and they are not received into society after imprisonment without penance and expense.'

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS.—The following tables illustrate the progress of education in the District of Maldah for the fifteen years from 1856-57 to 1870-71. Since that date the new system of primary instruction originated by Sir George Campbell has come into operation, and has produced important results, which will be explained in detail on a subsequent page. The figures for the earlier years must be received with caution, and are only approximately correct. They have been compiled from the appendices to the Annual Reports of the Department of Public Instruction; but, as is explained at length in the Account of Rajshahi District, it is now impossible to correct the manifest discrepancies therein contained. The total number of schools is right, but in the number of the pupils and the amount of the expenditure there is an unavoidable source of error. Subject to this explanation, the following tables show that in 1856-57 there were only 2 Government and aided schools in the District. attended by a total of 117 scholars. In 1860-61 the number of schools was still 2, and the number of pupils was 169. By 1870-71 the number of Government and aided schools had risen to 18, and the number of pupils to 986. The greatest portion of this increase was in the aided vernacular schools, of which there were none in 1856-57, and 11 in 1870-71, with an attendance of 556 scholars. The cost to Government rose from £35, 58. 1d. in 1856-57, to £237, 1s. 8d. in 1860-61, and to £613, 15s. 9d. in 1870-71. The amount derived from schooling fees, subscriptions, and other private sources was £ 16, 5s. 3d. in 1856-57, £110, 4s. 4d. in 1860-61, and £619, 13s. 4d. in 1870-71. The total expenditure, therefore, on Government and aided schools in Maldah District increased from £51, 10s. 4d. in 1856-57, to £347, 6s. od. in 1860-61, and to £1229, 138, 9d. in 1870-71. A striking feature in the table is the comparatively small number of the Muhammadan pupils; but in Maldah as elsewhere the proportion is steadily on the increase. The Musalmans number 46 per cent. of the District population; but in 1870-71 they formed scarcely 20 per cent. of the total number of

scholars, while in previous years the proportion was yet more untavourable. It must be remembered that these tables only give the schools which were in receipt of Government money and subject to Government inspection; there were, in addition, a large number of unaided and uninspected schools. The statistics of these private schools it is impossible to ascertain; but in 1872-73, after a great many of this class had been absorbed into the new Government system, it was estimated that there still existed 107 unaided pathsálás and maktabs, with an attendance of 1593 pupils.

The comparative tables for 1856-57, 1860-61, and 1870-71, are given on pages 120 and 121.

SCHOOLS IN 1871-72 AND 1872-73.—Under Sir George Campbell's improved system of primary education, which came into operation in 1872, a large number of indigenous village schools (pithsilits), which had hitherto been neglected by the State, were admitted to the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules. In the year 1871-72 the Educational Department furnished statistics of 23 Government and aided schools and of 42 private schools, making a total of 65 schools. attended on the 31st March 1872 by 1893 pupils; average daily attendance throughout the year, 687. In 1872-73 the number of Government and aided schools was 71, and the number of private schools 108, making a total of 179, attended on the 31st March 1873 by 4207 pupils; average daily attendance throughout the year, 1841. The total number of schools, therefore, increased by 114, or nearly threefold; and the number of pupils was more than doubled during the first year of the new system. The increase in the number of the private schools is to be attributed not only to the circumstance that the existence of these institutions is now more accurately ascertained than formerly, but also to the stimulus offered to the teacher class by the prospect of obtaining the Government grant, which causes new schools to be opened on all sides. It is also noteworthy that this great increase has been effected without in any way augmenting the total cost of education to Government. Indeed, in 1872-73 the Government contribution was actually less by £43, 28. 91d. than it had been in the previous year.

The table on page 122 exhibits the number, attendance, cost, etc., of each class of schools in Maldah District in 1871-72 and 1872-73.

The following paragraphs are taken almost verbatim from the [Sentence continued on page 123.

RETURN OF GOVERNMENT AND AIDED SCHOOLS IN MALDAH DISTRICT FOR THE YEARS 1856-57, 1860-61, AND 1870-71.

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1. Government English Schools,	:	-		:	\$	8	:	**	2	i	:	:	:	6	9
2. Government Vernacular Schools,	*	-	٣	2	&	157	91	2	7	:	:	:	117	2	178
3. Aided English Schools,	:	:	٣	:	:	***	:	:	28	:	:	:	:	:	<u> </u>
4 Ailed Vernacular Schools,	:	i	=	:	:	8	:	:	136	:	:	:	:	:	556
Total,	•	N	82	101	145	789	16	7.	197	:	:	:	117		86

RETURN OF GOVERNMENT AND AIDED SCHOOLS IN MALDAH DISTRICT FOR THE YEARS 1856-57, 1860-61, AND 1870-71-continued.

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EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS OF MALDAH DISTRICT FOR THE YEARS 1871-72 AND 1872-73.

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DESCRIPTION OF SCHOOLS.	3	Schools	Pupils on 31st March.	7. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4.	Attendance	Times Times	້ອ	Coverument.	int.	Other	Other Sources.	ř	Total	
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Sentence continued from page 119.]

Inspector's Report, pp. 126-130 of the Annual Report of the Educational Department for the year 1872-73.

'HIGHER-CLASS SCHOOL.—The Government District School, which is the only higher school in Maldah, had on its rolls on March 31st 1873, 111 students, which is an increase of 10 over the numbers of the preceding year. Owing to frequent changes during the year in the teaching staff, the school did badly in the examinations. The library of the school is reported to be in good order, and much resorted to by both masters and boys. The school building requires enlargement, and the addition to it of a boarding house (says the head-master) is likely to increase the number of pupils from the interior of the District.

'MIDDLE SCHOOLS.—Of the 15 middle schools, 3 teach English. They are yet young, and not sufficiently advanced to send up candidates for the minor scholarship examination. From what the Inspector knows of them and of the growing desire for advanced education among those classes who support them, he entertains strong hopes of their ultimate success. Of the 12 middle vernacular schools, 3 are entirely supported by Government, and are all doing well, especially the one at the Civil Station. The remaining 9 are also progressing steadily, with the exception of 2, which have suffered from the action of the river on the villages in which they are situated. The secretaries of these schools are reported to be taking a lively interest in their welfare, and year by year a larger number of candidates are sent to the vernacular scholarship examination.

PRIMARY SCHOOLS.—The primary schools in the District are now 55 in number, of which 6 are old pithsidis, and 49 belong to the class of new pathsidis which were started under the orders of July and September 1872. The old pathsidis, conducted by certificated gurus, and with local committees of the villagers to watch over them, continue to improve in the number of their pupils and in general efficiency. The average number of pupils has increased from 30 to 49; the total is now 299, of whom 194 are Hindus, mostly of the lower castes, and 105 are Musalmáns. The gurus, who are all Hindus, receive an average income from fees and subscriptions of Rs. 11 a month, or £13, 4s. od. a year. With respect to the 42 new pathsidis, the Deputy-Inspector reports the number of pupils to be 1046. Of these, 431 are Musalmáns, and the remaining 615 are Hindus, thus arranged according to caste:—247 belong to

the superior castes, 357 to the intermediate castes, and only 11 to the lowest rank of society, the semi-Hinduized aboriginals. The average attendance at these páthsálás is 24. Of the gurus, 32 are Hindus, and 10 are Muhammadans; their average income is, from local sources Rs. 2. 14. 0, and from the Government grants Rs. 3. 12. 0, making a total of Rs. 6. 10. 0 per month, or £8, 2s. od. a year. The sum of Rs. 1500 or £150 has been set aside out of the Chánchál estate, now under the Court of Wards, for the furtherance of education, being at the rate of about 1 per cent. on the gross rental. Nine new páthsálás have already been opened in different parts of this estate, and others will be opened shortly. Four new páthsálás have also been established in that portion of the Táherpur estate which lies within this District, and an application for funds has been made to the Collector of Rájsháhí.

'NORMAL SCHOOL.—There was no normal school in this District last year, nor is there, properly speaking, one now. From the savings of the recent grant for primary schools a training class has been instituted, in which 9 gurus or would-be gurus are receiving instruction in certain specified subjects, including the art of teaching. Concerning this experiment the Magistrate remarks as follows:-"I look upon this class with much interest, and hope that it will supply a want much felt here; for in a backward District like Maldah it is hopeless to expect that our exertions to extend education will be successful without efficient teachers. The arrangement made is that each pupil while studying in the class will receive Rs. 5 or 10s. per mensem from educational funds. At the end of three months he will undergo an examination, and if he fails to satisfy the condition on which salaries are awarded, he will be liable to refund the sum advanced."

'GIRLS' SCHOOLS.—There are no girls' schools in Maldah, nor as yet have any girls' classes been attached to the few old páthsálás that were already at work in the District.

'Indigenous Schools.—The Deputy-Inspector has received returns from 107 schools of this class, which are said to be attended by 1593 pupils. Nine of this number are makhtabs, attended by 48 pupils, who there learn to read the Kurán and Persian books. The remaining 98 are páthsáhis, attended by 1545 pupils, of whom 1161 are Hindus and 384 are Musalmáns.'

Postal Statistics.—There has been a considerable increase in the use of the post office within the past few years. Since 1861-62,

the earliest year for which trustworthy statistics are available, the total number of letters, newspapers, parcels, and books received at the Maldah post office has increased by 86 per cent. In 1861-62 the number was 63,560, which diminished to 48,024 in 1865-66, and increased to 100,220 in 1870-71. In 1861-62 the total number of letters, etc., despatched was 55,790, and in 1865-66, 43,799. The corresponding number for 1870-71 has not yet been ascertained. In 1861-62 the total postal receipts amounted to £406, 11s. 14d., in 1865-66 to £.452, 6s. 6\d., and in 1870-71 to £.763, 7s. 3d. The amount for this last year is exclusive of the sum derived from sales of stamps for official correspondence, which in previous years was included with the general receipts. In 1870-71 this item was £6, 10s. 3d., making the total receipts for that year amount to £769, 178. 6d. On the expenditure side of the account, the charges of the post office have increased from £485, 3s. 10 d. in 1861-62, to £.422, 138. old. in 1865-66, and to £826, os. od. in 1870-71. The following table, exhibiting the number of letters, etc., received at and despatched from the Maldah post office. together with the postal receipts and expenditure, for each of the years 1861-62, 1865-66, and 1870-71, is compiled from a return specially furnished to me by the Director-General of Post Offices:-

POSTAL STATISTICS OF MALDAH DISTRICT FOR THE YEARS 1861-62, 1865-66, AND 1870-71.

	1861	-62	186	· 66	187)-71.
	Received	De- spatched.	Received	De- spatched	Keceived.	De spatched
Letters,	58, 194 3,820 1,546 n.l.	55,035 504 238 13	4,427	227 185	4,549	
Total,	63,560	55,790	48,024	43.799	109, 220	
Sale of Postage Stamps, Cash Collections, Total Receipts, . Total Expenditure,			£219 232 452 422	13 54	£362 400 763 826	16 7

^{*} Exclusive of £6, tos. 3d., the receipts from the sale of stamps for official correspondence, which were first introduced in 1866.

THE SUBDIVISIONAL SYSTEM of administration has not yet been extended to Maldah District. The police circles or thánás remain the administrative units. They are nine in number,—(1) English Bázár; (2) Maldah; (3) Gárgáribá; (4) Kharbá; (5) Gájol; (6) Káliáchak; (7) Gumáshtápur; (8) Sibganj; (9) Nawábganj. These are the names of the police stations as given in the Census of 1872, and used throughout this Statistical Account. It seems probable, however, judging from an official map of the District, dated November 1874, that the name of thaina Gargariba has since 1872 been changed to that of Pranpur, and that the police station has been moved from the immediate neighbourhood of the Ganges, where it was exposed to annual inundations, to the village called Pránpur, which is situated on the Kalindri river, about half-way between Haiatpur and Maldah. The number of villages, as ascertained by the Revenue Survey in 1852. was 2336; in 1870 it was estimated to be 2822; and the Census of 1872 has finally fixed the number at 2100. The explanation of these discrepancies must be sought for in the circumstance that the definition of a Bengal village cannot be accurately determined.

FISCAL DIVISIONS.—The following list of Fiscal Divisions or parganás is based upon an alphabetical catalogue furnished to me by the Collector in 1870. The statistical details and other information are taken from the Geographical and Statistical Report of the Revenue Surveyor, Mr. J. J. Pemberton, dated October 1852, and from the Board of Revenue returns. At the time of the Revenue Survey the District of Maldah comprised only two-thirds of its present area. The list of parganás drawn up at that time is therefore necessarily defective; and the statistics must be taken as referring to that period (1852).

(1) AJHOR: a compact pargand in the north-east of the District, containing an area of 31,620 acres, or 49:40 square miles. The number of estates is 8, and the total land revenue £1486, 18s. od. The total area was thus classified by the Revenue Surveyor:—Barren or otherwise unassessed land, 9212 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 22,408; actually under cultivation, 14,938 acres. The average revenue per acre was—on the total area, 11½d.; on the total cultivated and cultivable, 1s. 4d.; on the cultivated land, 1s. 10½d. The principal town is Bághdala, which was estimated by the Revenue Surveyor to contain about 1500 inhabitants. There is a very good bisalr in this town, with a market on Thursday. Much trade is also carried on in the several hits throughout the pargand, chiefly at

Bamangola on the Tángan river, which is an important seat of traffic in rice, etc. The various soils are matier, dords, and belte, which are very rich, and produce abundance of the ordinary crops. The climate is damp, but not so unhealthy as in the neighbouring pargends.

- (2) ARBARABAD: area, 9204 acres, or 14'38 square miles; number of estates, 3; land revenue according to the Revenue Surveyor, which includes that of pargand Sujdinagar, £2363, 148. od.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £2357, 18s. od.; barren or otherwise unassessed land, 589 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 8615; cultivated, 7000; average revenue per acre, on total area, 1s. 3\frac{1}{2}d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 1s. 4d.; on cultivated land, 1s. 8d. This is a highly cultivated country, and the crops are abundant. There are no towns, but the villages are for the most part large and flourishing. The climate is healthy.
- (3) AKBARPUR: this pargand is in the extreme north-west of the District, and contains an area of 94,129 acres, or 147'07 square miles. The number of estates is 25; and the total land revenue is given as £850, 14s. 4d. by the Revenue Surveyor. The Board of Revenue returns give a revenue on the same acreage of £1862, 25. od. The total area was thus classified by the Revenue Surveyor: - Barren or otherwise unassessed land, 9176 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 84,953; cultivated, 42,476; the average revenue per acre on total area, 21d.; on the total cultivated and cultivable, 21d.; on the cultivated land, 42d. This pargand is well watered, being bordered in parts by both the Ganges and the Kalindri, and intersected by the Kankar, the Gobrá Garáiyá, the Dharamdaulá, the Kalkás, and the Káp, which are all tributaries of the Kálindrí. The capital is Haiátpur; and weekly markets are held at the towns of Sultanganj, Harichandrapur, Bhegal, Bhalukarai. Khidargani, Debipur, and Kamalpur. The condition of the people is generally prosperous; but the climate is very damp and insalubrious, and fever is always prevalent in the months of August, September, and October.
- (4) AKBARNAGAR: area, 1559 acres, or 243 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £28, 10s. od.; barren or otherwise unassessed land, 487 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 1071; cultivated, 1000; average revenue per acre on total area, 4\frac{1}{2}d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 5d.; on cultivated land, 6\frac{1}{2}d. The lands of this pargand are much interlaced with those of pargand Kánkjol.

- (5) ARBARSHAHI, or DIRAT ARBARSHAHI: not-mentioned by the Revenue Surveyor; area, 1173 acres, or 277 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £80, 122. od.
- (6) AMIRABAD: not described by the Revenue Surveyor, but mentioned by the Collector, and included in the returns of the Board of Revenue; area, 6 acres, or 'or square mile; r estate; land revenue, £4, 8s. od.
- (7) AMGACHHI: not mentioned by the Collector, nor included in the returns of the Board of Revenue; area, 57 acres, or '09 of a square mile; land revenue included with that of Kánkjol; barren or otherwise unassessed land, nil; total cultivated and cultivable, 57 acres; cultivated, 50. This pargand is composed of two isolated villages, each of which abut upon detached portions of pargand Kánkjol.
- (8) BAHADURPUR: area, 4352 acres, or 6.80 square miles; 9 estates; land revenue according to the Revenue Surveyor, £574, 78. 5\frac{1}{2}d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns (which apparently exclude a jalkar mahal, or fishing lease), £439, 108. od.; barren or otherwise unassessed land, 854 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 3498; cultivated, 3100; average revenue per acre on total area, 38. 8\frac{1}{2}d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 38. 3\frac{1}{2}d.; on cultivated land, 28. 8\frac{1}{2}d. This pargand is situated on the Ganges, opposite to a pargand of the same name in the District of Bhágalpur. The towns are, Alínagar Trimohani, and Káliáchak, of which the last is a police station, and in its neighbourhood is the indigo factory of the same name. The Páglá river winds through the southern part of the pargand, but its floods do more harm than good, as they only deposit sand. The soil is very fertile, and produces abundant crops, including indigo and fine mulberry.
- (9) BAIS-HAZARI: not mentioned in the returns of the Board of Revenue; area, 14,673 acres, or 22'93 square miles; land revenue, £20; barren land, or otherwise unassessed, 250 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 14,424; cultivated, 14,000. The average revenue per acre amounts to about one farthing, whether the total area or only the cultivated land be taken. This low rate of assessment is to be attributed to the fact that almost the whole of the pargand is rent-free or likhiraj. As has been already mentioned in connection with Panduah, and in the description of the land tenures of the District, it forms the ancient endowment out of which the monument of Pir Mukdam Shah and the charities connected therewith are maintained at Panduah.

- (10) BANGAON: mentioned as a separate pargent by the Collector, but not included in the other two returns,
- (11) BANSDOL PALTAPUR: area, 31,605 acres, or 49'35 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £440, 3s. od.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £437, 18s. od.; barren or otherwise unassessed land, 11,106 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 20,499; cultivated, 10,000; average revenue per acre, on total area, 22d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 5d.; on cultivated land, 10ld. This pargand lies to the south-east of the District, and its lands are much interlaced with those of pargands Wázírpur and Paltápur. The following general description is applicable to all three. The soils are matier, dords, and balu, of which the two former produce rich crops of rice, etc. The whole surface of the land undulates considerably, and the population is very sparse, except in the immediate neighbourhood of the Mahananda. The small number of inhabitants is attributed by the people themselves to a fearful visitation of cholera about the year 1816, which swept away the whole population of many villages. The Revenue Surveyor in 1852 was inclined to believe this tradition, judging from the number of halfinhabited villages and ruined huts which he saw in all parts. There are several very extensive swamps, covering altogether in the three pargands an area of about 4000 acres. That adjoining the Purnabhabá, called Jelborá bil, is the largest, and is much utilized for fishing and the cultivation of boro rice. The amount of jungle in the three pargands is estimated at about 22,500 acres. Large herds of cattle almost untended graze in these wastes, and godlds are frequently seen with buffaloes, which appear to thrive better here than ordinary cattle. Wherever possible, boro rice is sown broadcast without tillage in the jungle, and produces excellent crops. Wild beasts, however, swarm in this tract, and the cultivators are contented if they can save from the wild hogs one half of their crops. Tigers also are very common, and the beautiful sambar deer is sometimes found. The deer and hog are so numerous that the tigers seldom attack men; but two cases of man-eaters were known while the Revenue Surveyor had his camp in the neighbourhood. Two or three small beds of kankar limestone have been observed in this tract. The chief town in pargand Bansdol Paltapur is Rohanpur Máigani, situated a short distance above the junction of the Purnabhabá with the Mahánandá. This is the most cele-VOL VIL

brated rice mart in this part of the country. Boats come hither for supplies from as far west as Cawnpur on the Ganges and Agrá on the Jamná. The river is navigable up to this point at nearly all seasons of the year for boats of the largest size. Mahípur is also a flourishing town, but it is detached from the rest of the parguná, being situated much-lower down the Mahánanda

- (12) Bansgara: mentioned as a separate pargand by the Collector, but not included in the other two returns.
- (13) BEGAMABAD: area, 1684 acres, or 2.63 square miles; 4 estates; land revenue, £158; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 351 acres; cultivated and cultivable, 1333; cultivated, 1200; average revenue per acre, on total area, 18. 101d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 2s. 4\frac{1}{2}d.; on cultivated land, 2s. 7\frac{1}{2}d. This is a small but very fertile pargand, immediately to the north of the Civil Station, on the right bank of the Mahananda. produces the usual crops, as well as mulberry, in great abundance. Much of the land is occupied by mango tops, which are deservedly famous for their delicious fruit. During the mango season, it is (1852) not at all unusual to find a guard of sepoys sent by the Nawab of Murshidabad to guard certain trees of especial celebrity, the produce of which he has purchased from the proprietors. The great ferry of Nimásarái, directly opposite to Old Maldah, is situated in this pargand; and it is traversed by the main road from English Bázár to Dinájpur, which crosses the Mahánandá by this ferry. There are no towns, but the bank of the river is lined by large villages, which contain many brick houses, and look very picturesque from the water. Another striking object, when viewed from a boat, is an old mindr or tower in the neighbourhood of the ferry. It is now in a very ruined state, but is still from 35 to 40 feet high. The climate of the pargand is considered very healthy, and the inhabitants appear to be industrious and well to do.

Bhalasuri.—See (42) Shas-hazari.

(14) BHATTIA GOPALPUR: area, 51,325 acres, or 80'19 square miles; 117 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £2598, 15s. 3d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £2708, 6s. od.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 6209 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 45,115; cultivated, 34,070; average revenue per acre, on total area, 1s.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 1s. 12d.; on cultivated land, 1s. 6d. This pargent is

of very irregular shape, and is much interlaced with the neighbouring Its more compact portion lies between the Mahananda and the Bhagirathi, extending over a portion of the ruins of Gaur. and comprising also the Civil Station of English Bázár or Angrazábád. Besides this town, which has been described on a previous page, there are the following populous villages, all in the vicinity of the Mahananda: - Mahespur, Gopálpur, Raipur, Boyaliya, Jaliya Chaudalá, Tántípárá, Gailábari, Kismat Gopináthpur, and Mukhdampur. The roads about the Station are numerous and good. They are raised several feet above the level of the country, running along the old causeways constructed by the kings of Gaur, and consequently they are passable within an hour after the heaviest rain. There are many extensive ikils in this pargand. The largest is that known as Jalkar Kallak Sujá, covering 6276 acres, which is situated between the embankments of Gaur and the Mahananda. On its borders and in its shallower portions, very large quantities of boro rice are cultivated in the dry season. There is also a Government fishery in its waters, which is annually leased to a farmer. From the nature of the country, the climate must be damp. In the immediate neighbourhood of the Mahananda the people look robust and active, but on the western side of the pargand they have a very squalid and sickly appearance.

- (15) CHARLA DIANAPUR or DEOTAPUR: area, 1650 acres, or 2'58 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £143, 145. 11d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £142, 8s. od.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 182 acres; cultivated and cultivable, 1468; cultivated, 1400; average revenue per acre, on total area, 1s. 9d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 1s. 11½d.; on cultivated lahd, 2s. o½d. This is a small pargand, to the south-west of the ruins of Gaur. The river Páglá winds through its northern portion, and on its banks is situated the town of Ragunáthpur, which is thickly populated, and appears to be prosperous.
- (16) CHANDLAI: area, 81,841 acres, or 127.87 square miles; 37 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £2421, 8s. 5d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £2434, 18s. od.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 11,043 acres; cultivated and cultivable, 70,797; cultivated, 30,397; average revenue per acre, on total area, 7d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 8d.; on cultivated land, 1s. 7d. This pargand is so

much intermixed with the neighbouring pargands of Nizampur, Lashkarpur, Hijrapur, and Sherpur-hijrapur, that one description will suffice for the five. This tract of country lies between the Mahananda river and Raishahi District, immediately to the south of the circle of pargands which has been described under Bansdol Paltapur. There are no rivers except the Mahananda, which forms the western boundary. On its banks there are several thriving and densely-populated villages, but towards the interior the villages become rare and small. The general appearance of the country is undulating, especially to the eastward; and occasionally beds or hankar limestone are to be seen. Rice is the sole crop grown, except in the vicinity of the river, where other cereals and green crops are also cultivated to a considerable extent. The climate is somewhat better than in the circle of pargands to the north, for the jungle, though equally extensive, is not so much intermixed with swamps. In pargand Chandlai there are (1852) about 28,000 acres of jungle, high grass, and bushes, intermixed with forest trees. This large area is not so unprofitable as might be imagined, for boro rice is cultivated in every available spot, and the grass is much used for making the walls and roofs of houses.

(17) DARSARE GANGAHAR: area, 11,067 acres, or 17'29 square miles; 8 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor. £156, 178. 101d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns. £, 208, 48, od. (this discrepancy may perhaps be explained by the existence of a jalkar mahal or fishing lease connected with the pargand); barren land or otherwise unassessed, 472 acres; cultivated and cultivable, 10,595; cultivated, 6028; average revenue per acre, on total area, 32d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 32d.; on cultivated land, 6d. This is a very irregularly shaped pargend, lying for the most part to the south of the ruins of Gaur. There are no rivers, but an immense number of tanks (the relics of the southern suburb of Gaur), jhils, nalds, and swamps exist, which render this part of the District unhealthy. Fevers attended with ague fits are common, being most prevalent from the end of August to the middle of November. The soil is fertile, and produces large quantities of rice, as well as wheat, barley, mustard, and mulberry. Sulimabad, a detached mause or the Ganges, contains the only town deserving notice. There are two or three other villages of large size, but thinly inhabited.

(18) DEHARPUR: not mentioned in the Board of Revenue re-

turns; area, 275, acres, or 0.42 of a square mile; land revenue, mil; barren land, mil; total cultivated and cultivable, 275 acres; cultivated land, 200. This pargund, which is entirely likhird; or rent-free, and very productive, consists of two villages on the left or northern bank of the Kalindri river.

DIHAT ARBARSHAHI.—See (5) ARBARSHAHI.

- (19) DOGACHHI: area, 1262 acres, or 1'97 square mile; r estate; land revenue, £30, 17s. 8\frac{1}{2}d.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, nil; total cultivated and cultivable, 1262 acres; cultivated, 100; average revenue per acre, on total area and on total cultivated and cultivable, 5\frac{1}{2}d.; on cultivated land, 6\frac{1}{2}d. This pergand, which is (1852) situated on the right or Bhágalpur bank of the Ganges, is composed of only one village. The soil, which is watered by three large dhárs of that river, is exceedingly productive, and yields fine and luxuriant crops of all sorts.
- (60) FARRAKHABAD: mentioned as a separate pargund by the Collector, but not included in either of the other returns. It is situated on the eastern bank of the Ganges, but was formerly comprised within the District of Murshidabad.
- (21) GANGAPATH ISLAMPUR: area, 464 acres, or 0.72 of a square mile; 2 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £15, 9s. 11d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £1199, 16s. od. (this latter sum, which is returned upon the same acreage as the former, must be erroneous); barren land or othewise unassessed, mil; total cultivated and cultivable, 463 acres; cultivated, 350; average revenue per acre, on total area and total cultivated and cultivable, 8d.; on cultivated land, 10\frac{1}{2}d. This pargend, which is composed of detached portions entirely surrounded by neighbouring pargends, is highly cultivated with the usual crops.
- (22) GAURHAND: area, 24,916 acres, or 38'93 square miles; 10 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £928, 162. 3d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £933, 122. od.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 8788 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 16,127 acres; total cultivated, 10,684; average revenue per acre, on total area, 9d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 12. 12d.; on cultivated land, 12. 82d. This pargual, which is situated in the north-west of the District, now forms part of the Chánchál estates, having been purchased by the late Rájá in 1848, for the sum of £9100, from the acmindérs of Táki in the 24 Parganés. Mr. Reily, the manager of the Chánchál estates under

the Court of Wards, in a report dated November 1873, furnisher the following statistics:—The total area is now 28,342 acres, or 44'28 square miles, of which 17,269 acres are barren, 1789 are likhirdj or rent-free, 441 have been assigned as service lands, and 8843 are held by ordinary rent-paying cultivators. With the exception of two permanent holdings, created many years ago, the tenure called hal hasila prevails over the whole of the pargand, and is much encouraged by the large proportion of waste land. The total number of cultivating tenants is 2795, of whom 1839 are Hindus, 956 Muhammadans. The average size of the cultivators' holdings is 8 bighas and 6 kathas, or somewhat under 3 acres, and the average rent per holding is 13s. 4d.

(23) HATANDA; area, 3239 acres, or 5'06 square miles; 5 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £,106, 115. 21d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £,109, 18s. od.: barren land or otherwise unassessed, 1001 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 2238; cultivated, 2200; average revenue per acre, on total area, 8d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 114d.; on cultivated land, 1s. od. This pargand, situated in the north-west of the District, is highly cultivated, and produces rice in great abundance. The chief village is Daulatpur, where there are several shops. Since the date of the Revenue Survey (1852), the area included within this parand has been augmented by the transfer of another parxand, of the same name, from the District of Purnish to the revenue jurisdiction of Maldah. The reunited pargand forms part of the Chanchal estates, which are at present under the Court of Wards, and managed by Mr. Reily. The report by this gentleman on the land tenures of the Chanchal estates in 1873 gives the following statistics concerning this tract. The total area is now 80,471 acres, or 125'73 square miles, of which 31,145 acres are barren, 5226 are likhirdi or rent-free, 2012 have been assigned away as service lands, and 41,188 are occupied by ordinary rent-paying cultivators. The number of cultivating tenants is 9202, of which total 4803 are Hindus, and 4399 are Muhammadans. There is only one permanent tenure in the pargund, the remainder being held under what is known as the hall hasile system. which has already been fully described under the title of Land Tenures. The average size of the cultivators' holdings is 11 birlds and 2 hathus, or somewhat under 4 acres, and the average rent per holding is 178, 3d.

- (24) HAVILI TARA: area, 14.959 acres, or 23:37 square miles; 7,3 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £1033, 8s. 1d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £1016, 6s. od.; barren land and otherwise unassessed, 2137 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 12,822; cultivated, 9548; average revenue per acre, on total area, 1s. 41d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 1s. 7d.; on cultivated land, 2s. 2d. This Aergund is situated to the south-west of the District. Its lands are very productive, the principal crops being barley, wheat, rice, indigo, pulse, mustard-seed, mulberry, gram, and flax. The mulberry grown here is said to be the finest in Maldah. Alipur is the only town, but there are also several large villages, which seem to be in a prosperous state. The Páglá river flows through this pargand, and during the rains its channel is much used by the boats sailing up stream, in order to avoid the long and rapid sweep of the Ganges.
- (25) HIJRAPUR: area, 5804 acres, or 9.07 square miles; 16 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £283, 15s. 5d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £228, 6s. od.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 85 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 5719; cultivated, 4500; average revenue per acre, on total area, 113d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 1s.; on cultivated land, 1s. 3d. A description of this pargand has been included in that given for (16) Chandlái.
- (26) KAMLABARI: area, 701 acres, or 1'09 square mile; 2 estates; land revenue, £57, 13s. 3d.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, nil; total cultivated and cultivable, 701 acres; cultivated, 500; average revenue per acre, on total area and total cultivated and cultivable, 1s. 7\frac{1}{2}d.; on cultivated land, 2s. 3\frac{1}{2}d. This pargend consists of 7 villages, which are situated within the vast area of ground covered by the ruins of Gaur. Three of these, in the vicinity of the celebrated tank called Sagar Dighi, are covered with dense jungle; but the remainder, which are situated about two miles farther south, are highly cultivated, and yield exceedingly fine crops.
- (27) KANKJOL: area, 38,657 acres, or 60'40 square miles, with a land revenue of £1487, 18s. 1d., according to the Revenue Surveyor, which includes also the revenue from parxand Amgáchhi; but the Board of Revenue returns give an area of 24,289 acres or 37'95 square miles, 29 estates, and 2 land revenue of £1222,

- 16s. od. The calculations of the Revenue Surveyor show barren land or otherwise unassessed, 15,000 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 23,558; cultivated, 15,704; average revenue per acre, on total area, od.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 1s. 3d.; on cultivated land, 1s. 10-dd. This pargand is composed of four compact portions, which lie, each separated from one another, in the north-west of the District; and of twelve villages detached in pargand Shikarpur, the most distant of which is twenty-six miles from the eastern compact portion. In the northern portion are the Kalindri and Kusi rivers; the middle abuts on the Ganges; and the southern is well watered by dhars of the Ganges, which are replenished yearly when the inundation takes place. The eastern portion is contained within Shershahabad pargand, and has no rivers or places of importance, but is very fertile. The same may be said also of the middle portion bordering the Ganges. In the northern portion are situated the thand or police station of Gargariba, and the towns of Bazidpur, Rasulpur, and Balupur. The small town of Enditpur is in the southern portion. The climate is very good, as is at once shown by the healthy appearance of the people, who are much more robust, active, and intelligent than those who reside on the eastern side of the Mahananda. Fogs are excessively frequent during the months of November, December, and January, but the people do not seem to suffer from them as in the neighbouring District of Purnish.
- (28) KARDA: mentioned as a separate pargund by the Collector, but not included in either of the two other returns.
- (29) KASIMNAGAR: area, 6514 acres, or 10°18 square miles; 4 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £306, 7s. 4\frac{1}{2}d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £299, 125. od.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 862 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 5652 acres; cultivated, 3400; average revenue per acre, on total area, 11\frac{1}{2}d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 1s. 1d.; on cultivated land, 1s. 9\frac{1}{2}d. This is a very intermixed parguad, and in addition it has suffered greatly from the varying course of the Ganges. In 1852 its condition was thus described:—It used to contain 27 villages, but two of these have been cut away by the Ganges. Of the remainder, 9 villages are distributed among three tolerably compact portions of the parguad, and 5 are much interlaced with other parguads. These 14 are all on the Maldah side of the Ganges, but the 11 others are situated

on the farther side of that river, and are involved with the pergent of the same name in the District of Murshidabad. The towns are Kutabpur, Manganpur, which contains a large bister, and Lachirampur. The lands are very fertile, though but little more than half are under cultivation.

- (30) KASIMPUR: mentioned as a separate pargand by the Collector, but not included in either of the two other returns.
- (31) KOTWALI: area, 23,698 acres, or 37.03 square miles; 29 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £1000, 38. 31d., according to the Board of Revenue returns, £989, 14s. od.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 1406 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 22,292; cultivated, 22,100; average revenue per acre, on each of the above areas, 10 dd. This pargand stretches along the north of the northern suburb of Gaur, and apparently derives its name from the administrative officer stationed at the city gate. The Kalindri river forms for a certain distance the northern boundary, and the Bhagirathi also waters part of its The whole is in a very prosperous state; cultivation is universally and highly carried out. The soil yields not only the common crops, but also all the more valuable products, while, in the opinion of the Revenue Surveyor, the cultivators are industrious and the landlords improving. The chief town is called Kotwáli. and there are also numerous large villages, of which the most important are Phulwariá, Jot Narsinh, Jot Gopáli, Sonátalá, Sultánpur, Satanandpur, Jot Gharib, Sádípur, Sháh Jalálpur, and Umárpur. One large jhil exists in the northern part of the pargand, which has no special name, but is indiscriminately called after the adjoining villages. It is plentifully supplied with water by several fine springs, and is drained by a small stream flowing into the Bhagirathi. During the rains, when the Kalindri overflows its banks, its waters are also carried off through this jhil by the same stream, which is called the Amirthi. Irrigation is extensively practised from the numerous smaller jhils. The climate is considered good, except in the months of September and October, when numbers suffer from fever. The villagers seem robust and healthy, and there is an appearance of wealth and comfort about them not to be met with on the eastern side of the Mahananda.
 - (32) LASHKARPUR: area, 831 acres, or 1'29 square mile; 1 estate; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £21, 62. od.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £36, 184. od.;

barren land or otherwise unassessed, 145 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 685; cultivated, 590; average revenue per acre, on total area, 6d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 7½d.; on cultivated land, 8½d. A description of this parganá has been included in that given for (16) Chandlái.

- (33) MAHINAGAR: mentioned as a separate pargand by the Collector, and included in the Board of Revenue returns, but with no particulars beyond that it is a jalkar makal or fishing lease. It would appear to have been formerly comprised in the Districts of Purniah and Dinájpur.
- (34) MAKRAIN: area, 40,787 acres, or 63.73 square miles; 22 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £807, 17s. od.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £833; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 14,519 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 26,268; cultivated, 13,134; average revenue per acre, on total area, 42d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 6d.; on cultivated land, 1s. 21d. This pargand, which lies towards the north-west of the District, naturally divides into two portions. The one part, which is bounded to the east by the Mahananda and an old channel of the same river called the murá Mahánandá, is low, unhealthy, and sparsely inhabited, being overgrown with grass jungle, which affords grazing ground for large herds of cattle. The other part, where the villages cluster round both banks of the Kalindri, towards the south of the paryand, is densely populated, and the soil is fertile and highly cultivated. The murd Mahananda is called murd or dead, not because the stream has dried up, but because boats have ceased to frequent this channel, in preference for the wider and less tortuous course of the modern river. ancient stream is still very deep, and abounds with fish of many kinds, which are caught with the line and with the net, and very frequently at night by torchlight. Nijgáon is considered the chief town in the pargana, but Pranpur and Arhidanga are also places of some importance. Pranpur, which is on the Kalindri, has lately (1874) been chosen as the site of the new police station (thank) to supersede Gargáriba. The people of the north-eastern portion of the parrand have a very sickly appearance, and are much afflicted with splenitis. Those residing near the Kalindri are more robust and healthy.
 - (35) NIZAMPUR: area, 4740 acres, or 7'40 square miles; 4 estates; land revenue, £197, 5s. 21d.; barren land or otherwise unassessed,

178 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 4561; cultivated, 3560; average revenue per acre, on total area, 10d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 10dd.; on cultivated land, 1s. 1dd. A description of this pargand has been included in that already given for (16) Chandlái.

- (36) PALTAPUR: area, 9393 acres, or 14'66 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £224, 10s. 3\frac{1}{2}d.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 1915 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 7477; cultivated, 5210; average revenue per acre, on total area, 5\frac{1}{2}d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 7d.; on cultivated land, tod. A description of this pargand has been included in that already given for (11) Bansdol Paltapur.
- (37) PARDIAR: area, 2263 acres, or 3.53 square miles; r estate; land revenue, £130, 18s. 8\frac{1}{2}d.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 109 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 2154; cultivated, 2000; average revenue per acre, on total area, 1s. 2d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 1s. 2\frac{1}{2}d.; on cultivated land, 1s. 7d. This pargand is situated between the Ganges and the ruins of Gaur. It is highly cultivated, and yields luxuriant crops of all kinds. There are no towns, but the villages are mostly large and populous, and the inhabitants appear to be comfortable and happy.
- (38) RADHABALLABHPUR: mentioned as a separate pargand by the Collector, but not included in either of the two other returns. It would seem to have been formerly comprised in the District of Dinájpur.
- (39) RAJNAGAR: area, 39,504 acres, or 61'72 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £841, 9s. 3½d.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 10,311 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 29,192; cultivated, 14,600; average revenue per acre, on total area, 5d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 7d.; on cultivated land, 1s. 1½d. This pargand is situated in the north-east of the District, and is divided into two distinct portions by the intervening pargand of Kásimnagar. The northern portion is the more healthy and prosperous of the two, and contains the town and police station of Gájol. The southern portion, which is bounded on the south and east by the river Tángan, is mostly occupied with jungle. Its chief place is Kishanpur, a populous market village. The soil is principally matidr, which yields abundant rice crops; but the coldweather crops are unimportant. The climate is exceedingly damp, and far from healthy. The jungle portion of the pargand is almost

deadly at certain seasons,—from December to January, and again when the waters of the jhils begin to stagnate, between the end of March and the end of May. The inhabitants, especially in the southern portion, have a weak and sickly appearance.

(40) ROKANPUR: area, 40,853 acres, or 63.83 square miles, with a land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, of £1379, 16s. 10ld. According to the Board of Revenue returns, the area is 48,853 acres, or 76.33 square miles, and the land revenue is £3032. 8s. od. The number of estates is 15. According to the calculations of the Revenue Surveyor, the barren or otherwise unassessed land is 18.828 acres; the total cultivated and cultivable, 22,025; the cultivated, 11,000; the average revenue per acre is, on the total area, 8d.; on the total cultivated and cultivable, 1s. 3d.; on the cultivated land, 25. 6d. This parganá lies to the east of the town of Old Maldah, the Mahananda forming the western and the Tangan the south-eastern boundary. It is exceedingly intermixed with a pargand of the same name belonging to the District of Dinajpur. It was found necessary to survey the two together, a circumstance which may perhaps account for the discrepancies in the area and land revenue shown above. The soil in the neighbourhood of the Mahánandá is of a loose and sandy nature, and produces excellent and abundant crops both of rice and the more valuable products. In the middle of the pargand and towards the Tangan the lands are so moist as to be unfit for anything but boro rice. Half the whole surface is covered with impenetrable jungle, the haunt of all manner of wild beasts. There are several considerable jhuls or swamps; the largest is called the Jalkar Bathán, which swarms with fish, and is let out by the proprietor to fishermen. It is connected with the Tangan by two nalds, and was formerly joined in a similar way to the Mahananda. Besides the town of Old Maldah, of which a description has already been given, the remaining places of some importance are Mangalbári and Mabárikpur. The climate is excessively damp and unhealthy. It is positively fatal to strangers immediately after the rains, and between the months of April and Tune. This pargand now forms part of the Chanchal estates, having been purchased by the late Rájá in 1850, in the name of his wife, when put up at public auction for arrears of revenue. For the first five years the purchaser appears to have failed to collect even the Government revenue. He then attempted to raise the rents of the cultivators, which involved him in greater difficulties; and he was

ultimately obliged to resort to the alternative of letting the whole purgund out to farm. The farmer has ever since continued in possession; and consequently Mr. Reily, the manager of the Chánchál estates under the Court of Wards, from whose report the above facts are drawn, was unable to furnish any accurate statistics concerning the present condition of this pargand.

- (41) SAMBALPUR: mentioned as a separate pargund by the Collector, but not included in either of the two other returns. Apparently it was formerly situated in the District of Purniah, but being entirely surrounded by pargunds belonging to Maldah, has now been transferred to the latter District.
- (42) SHAS-HAZARI OF BRALASARI: not included in the Board of Revenue returns; area, 26,071 acres, or 40.73 square miles; land revenue, nil; barren land, 4000 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 22,071; cultivated, 11,000. This pargand is entirely labhirai or rent-free. Some account of the origin of the grant has been given in the course of describing the land tenures of the District. The river Mahananda forms the natural western boundary of the whole of the compact portion of the pargand. The only towns of any note are situated in fragments detached from this central portion. Shahpur is in pargand Rokanpur, some three miles south of Old Maldah, on the Mahananda. Pakharia is in pargana Sambalpur, and the same mausa also contains the large town of Pirganj, on the western bank of the Mahananda. All these towns are plentifully supplied with shops, and a few hals or markets are held in some of the villages of the compact portion of the pargand. The main road from Maldah to Dinajpur cuts across the south-eastern corner, and for about six miles of its length is fringed with the scattered ruins and monuments of Panduah or Peruah, which have already been described. The lands are low, and never require irrigation. They produce rice and mustard-seed abundantly, and a little mulberry. The people are puny, weak, and miserable in appearance, especially in the parts away from the Mahananda. The principal diseases are intermittent fever, accompanied by ague, dropsy, and splenitis. Vast numbers must be carried off by fever every year, but still there appears to be no want of population, except in the jungly tracts. The apathy of all classes during the sickly season is astonishing. They think and speak of sickness and death as a matter of course, and when attacked will often pertinaciously refuse any kind of remedy.

- (43) SHERPUR FATHI KHAMA: area, 4660 acres, or 7.28 square miles; 3 estates; land revenue, £180, 38. 5\(\frac{1}{2}\)d.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 347 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 4313; cultivated, 4013; average revenue per acre, on total area, 9\(\frac{1}{2}\)d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 10d.; on cultivated land, 10\(\frac{1}{2}\)d. This pargand, which is tolerably compact, is situated between the Ganges and the ruins of Gaur. It is very highly cultivated, and produces all manner of crops. The towns are N\(\text{arianpur}\), Sherpur, Dabipur, and Chandpur; and there are besides many flourishing villages. The people appear robust and active, from which it may be inferred that the climate is not unhealthy.
- (44) SHERPUR HIJRAPUR: area, 478 acres, or 0.74 of a square mile; I estate; land revenue, £17, 3s. 7\foralled.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, nil; total cultivated and cultivable, 478 acres; cultivated, 400; average revenue per acre, on total area and total cultivated and cultivable, 8\foralled.; on cultivated land, 10\foralled. A description of this pargand has been included in that already given for (16) Chandlái.
- (45) SHERSHAHABAD: area, 106,568 acres, or 166.50 square miles; 15 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £3423, 16s. 51d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £,4502, 128. od.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 12,570 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 93,998; cultivated, 68,666; average revenue per acre, on total area, 71d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 81d.; on cultivated land, 18. This pargand, which is the most extensive in the District, is very irregularly shaped, and has many detached fragments. One of these fragments is situated on the farther side of the Ganges, within the District of Murshidshad. and another on the eastern bank of the Mahananda; but the central portion lies between these two rivers, and surrounds the ruins of Gaur. The Páglá is the only river which intersects it in any part; but there are besides several large ndiás flowing from the numerous jails. The towns are Ranshathi, Sibgani (a thank or police station). Daulatpur, and Kansat. The two last are marts of very old standing for all sorts of native produce. There is a large indigo concern at Tartipur, and a silk filature, belonging to Mesers. Watson & Co., at Báru Gharia. The soil produces all manner of crops without irrigation, and does not require much tillage, owing to its loose nature.
 - (46) SHIKARPUR: area, 20,826 acres, or 32'54 square miles; 9

estates; land revenue, £405, 158. 84d.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 8414 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 12,412; cultivated, 6000; average revenue per acre, on total area, 41d.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 71d.; on cultivated land, 18. 4d. This pargand is very much intermixed with another pargand of It occupies that the same name in the District of Dinajpur. portion of Maldah District which is enclosed between the Tángan and Purnabhabá rivers. Pargand Ajhor forms a sharp boundary to the north, on the east comes the District of Dinajpur, and the Mahananda closes the western corner. The only town is Bangabari, in this western corner. Two thirds are covered by jungle, which is almost impenetrable, and affords one of the most celebrated hunting grounds in Bengal. The landowners make a considerable profit from the sale of the cane, reed, and grass jungle. The grass is carried down the rivers in immense quantities, and is used for repairing the chappars or roofs of the native trading boats, which frequently put into the mouth of the Mahananda for this purpose. The reeds are made into charcoal by the village blacksmiths. Tillage is not much practised. The seed is simply sown broadcast, and then harrowed; but even the harrow is not always used. Bero rice is very extensively cultivated, being sown in the dampest parts. When the crop is ripe, there is very often a foot or two of water over the roots; and in such a case the cultivators come in canoes and cut off the ears of grain, leaving the straw to rot in the water. The climate is excessively damp and unhealthy. The Revenue Surveyor reports that his own establishment suffered very severely from fever in this fargand. He remarked that when an easterly or south-easterly wind prevailed, sickness invariably followed, and that a wind from the west drove the sickness away.

- (47) SUJAINAGAR: not mentioned by the Collector, nor included in the Board of Revenue returns; area, 27,968 acres, or 43'70 square miles; land revenue included in the amount given for pargand (2) Akbarábád; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 489 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 27,480; cultivated, 21,327. This pargand is described by the Revenue Surveyor as being completely separated from the rest of the District by intervening portions of Purniah, and apparently, judging from its omission in the other catalogues, it must now have been annexed to the latter District.
- (48) SULTANGANJ: area, 16,331 acres, or 25'52 square miles; 35 estates; land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor,

£818, 16s. 4\frac{3}{2}d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns. £802, 12s. od.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 2319 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 14,012; cultivated, 9138; average revenue per acre, on total area, 1s.; on total cultivated and cultivable, 1s. 2d.; on cultivated land, 1s. 91d. This pargand is situated in the west of the District. Its lands extend to both banks of the Ganges, and it has also several detached fragments in other parganás to the south of its central part. These detached portions are very highly cultivated; but the soil in the neighbourhood of the Ganges is of inferior quality, being always liable to excessive deposits of sand from the river. In two places the Ganges has (1852) broken through the parganá, and each successive year its course suffers some change. A newly formed char has scarcely time to become valuable before it is swept away and another formed, perhaps on the farther side of the river. Disputes concerning the property in these alluvial accretions, and the right of fishing in the numerous dhars, which are created in a similar way, are of perpetual occurrence; but the unceasing activity of the river rarely allows them to reach a final settlement. Páglá river flows through the south-eastern corner of the parganá. and has thrown off a large dhar near the village of Jot Paran, which in a great measure protects this tract from the incursions of the Ganges. The chief towns are Lakhipur and Sultanganj.

(49) WAZIRPUR: area, 27,987 acres, or 43.73 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £400, 10s. 31d.; barren land or otherwise unassessed, 355; total cultivated and cultivable, 27,631; cultivated, 20,000; average revenue per acre, on total area and on total cultivated and cultivable, 31d.; on cultivated land, 42d. A general description of this pargand has been included in that already given for (11) Bánsdol Paltapur. It contains the flourishing village and police station of Gumáshtápur, which possesses a large bázár and also a market (hat) held twice a week. The market extends into the village, but the principal business appears to be transacted under the shade of a celebrated banian tree in the immediate vicinity of the básár. The stems of this tree are about twenty in number. and average from 90 to 100 feet in height. Many blacksmiths have located themselves here, and work under two immense chappars or grass-roofed sheds. The Revenue Surveyor states that he has seen no less than forty pairs of bellows at work at the same time, but the workmanship is very indifferent.

The catalogue of pargands given above yields the following totals, which must be received with caution, as they differ from one another, and do not refer to the same dates :- Total of Airgands, according to the Revenue Surveyor in 1852, 39; according to the Board of Revenue returns, year not given, but certainly posterior to the Revenue Survey, 37; according to the Collector in 1870, 47: grand total, arrived at by a collation of these three returns, 49. Number of estates according to the Board of Revenue returns, 501. Total area, according to the Revenue Surveyor, 824,520 acres, or 1288:31 square miles; according to the Board of Revenue returns (after a correction of manifest misprints), 740,982 acres, or 1157'78 square miles. Total land revenue, according to the Revenue Surveyor, £25,343, 16s. 3d.; according to the Board of Revenue returns, £29,983, 18s. od. The remaining totals and averages come solely from the Revenue Surveyor. Total of land barren or otherwise unassessed, 153,808 acres; total cultivated and cultivable, 670,713; total cultivated, 426,583. Average revenue per acre, on total area (exclusive of lákhiráj), 7 d., on total cultivated and cultivable, 9d.; on cultivated land, old. The latest figures, in correction of the above totals, are as follow:-Area as returned by the Houndary Commissioner in September 1874, exclusive of the larger rivers, 1806:64 square miles; number of estates in 1873, 560, and land revenue in the same year, £37,625, 128. od, as given by the Deputy-Collector in his report on the land tenures of that date.

MEDICAL ASPECT AND METEOROLOGY—The District of Maldah is considered less unhealthy than the Districts of Purniah, Dináppur, and Rájsháhí, which bound it on the north, east, and southeast. Its eastern portion, which is covered with jungles and swamps, and where the soil is a damp clay, is exposed to the same malarious fever which prevails in the neighbouring Districts; but the population of this region is comparatively small, and consequently the total amount of sickness is less than might be expected. The banks of the Mahánandá and the greater portion of the tract that lies between that river and the Ganges are favoured by more wholesome conditions of soil and climate, and are probably less obnoxious to disease than the average of Bengal.

The year is divided into the three usual seasons. The rainy season commences about the middle of June and continues well on into October. The greatest amount of rain usually falls between the second week of July and the second week of September. The VOL VII.

prevailing direction of the wind is S.E.; it often blows a strong gale, but never approaches the strength of a cyclone. Hail-storms at this time are not unfrequent. In 1865 there was a violent storm, which wrought great destruction among the crops, and rendered uninhabitable the grass built huts of the poorer classes. Some of the stones which fell during this storm are said to have been from one to two pounds in weight. During the rainy season, persons of a rheumatic diathesis suffer most; and, as a rule, fever, cholera, and small-pox disappear. The cold season lasts from the third week of October to the middle of February. As the waters caused by the river floods begin to dry up, fever of a malarious nature breaks out in all parts of the District. Presently cholera makes its appear-The wind blows from N.W., ance, and last of all small-pox. the nights are cold and dewy, and the mornings generally foggy. The hot weather begins in February and lasts till June. During the last two months the heat becomes almost unbearable, and the atmosphere is, as it were, stagnant. The general direction of the wind is from S.E. to S.W.; but occasionally it will shift to N. or N.W., and blow violently for a short time, driving a few clouds, which fall in a shower of rain. Cholera and small-pox will often linger on during this season, but diairhoea and dysentery are the most common disorders.

The average temperature for the five years ending 1869 is reported by the Civil Surgeon to be 76'06. He returns the average rainfall for the same period at 55 26 inches. The Meteorological Department gives the following as the monthly rainfall for the year 1871, taken at the Civil Station of English Bázár, which is 160 feet above the seadevel—January, ml, February, 0'02 of an inch, March, 1'61 inches. April, 1'72, May, 3'86; June, 9'63; July, 14'99; August, 6'12, September, 20'22; October, 4'52; November, ml, December, ml total for the year, 62'69 inches. The same authority thus returns the monthly rainfall for 1872: January, 0'09; February, 1'34; March, 0'02; April, 0'49; May, 2'81; June, 11'84; July, 14'43; August, 5'69; September, 7'72; October, 8'08; November, ml; December, ml, total rainfall for the year, 52'51 inches.

DISEASES.—There are no diseases in Maldah District of a strictly endemic type. Outbreaks of malarious fever, cholera, and small-pox recur with regularity at certain seasons of the year, but none of these continue with such persistence as to be properly classed with

endemics. Epidemic small-pox is comparatively rare; but the universal practice of inoculation produces an annual crop of outbreaks in the several villages. Epidemic fever of a distinctly malarious character always accompanies the cessation of the rains. disorder is of an intermittent type, and amenable to medical treat ment. Deaths from this cause, however, are very common, being partly caused by neglect and partly by the mismanagement of the kabirdis or native practitioners. The essential principle of their method is to enforce abstinence from all food for at least seven days from the first seizure, provided at least that their patient survives so long. The Civil Surgeon is of opinion that the only real preventive of this fever is to be found in the extension of cultivation, which would tend to remove its two main sources, the jungles and the swamps. Cholera, like the other epidemics, is regularly heard of first in the outlying parts of the District, and then extends to the central and more highly cultivated portions. There are two separate seasons for its appearance,-during October, November, and December, together with fever after the rains, and again during March, April, and May. Sometimes cholera will suddenly appear and carry off a few persons, and then disappear with equal suddenness. At other times it will drag on for months, until the next rains set in. During the actual rainy season cholera is of very rare occurrence. The commencement of an outbreak is marked by a few mild attacks; then will come the climax, when both the number of attacks and their virulence are greatest, and lastly it will die away, as if worn out. Its attacks sometimes alternate in a most perplexing way with malarious fever. It is of course impossible to give any statistical information showing the mortality caused by these epidemics among the general population of the District. The following figures. furnished by the Civil Surgeon, illustrate an outbreak of cholera which took place in the Maldah jail in 1868:-Average daily strength of the prison population, 87 68; number attacked by cholera, 12; percentage of attacks to total strength, 13:69; percentage of deaths to number attacked, 25; percentage of deaths to total strength. 3'42. The Civil Surgeon has also supplied two tables, showing the average rate of sickness and mortality in the Maldah jail for a period of forty-eight years. I am not sure that the figures are entirely accurate, especially in the earlier years, and it would be most hazardous to draw from them any general conclusions. print them, however, in the form in which they were sent, merely

adding the columns of percentages. The first table, which covers the thirty-one years from 1822-52, gives the average daily strength of the prisoners, the total number of admissions into hospital, and the number of deaths in each year. The second table, which extends over a later period, from 1852-69, also classifies the diseases of the sick prisoners:—

Table 1., showing the Average Daily Strength and the Number of Admissions into Hospital and Deaths among the Prisoners in the Maldah Jail from 1822 to 1852.

Years.	Average daily strength of prisoners in jail.	of admissions	Number of deaths.	Proportion of deaths to daily average strength
1822,	126.05	116	11	8:72
1823,	104	96	10	9.01
1824,	215.91	349	12	\$.22
1825,	187.	620	71	38 00
1826,	100.	250	10	9.43
1827,	120.0	266	7	5 78
1 × 28,	115.	228	15	13 04
1829,	185.	201	11	5 94
1830,	156.	315	22	14'10
1831,	118.	357	21	17 79
1832,	1916	307	9	4 69
1833,	113.11	351	15	13:37
1834,	159 2	250	17	10 67
1835,	130.	198	10	7 (4)
1836,	150.	146	4	2 66
1837,	182.3	191	16	8.63
1838,	153.	136	14	9.15
1539,	152.3	136	10	6 50
1840,	171	176	19	11.11
1841,	165.	224	8.0	6 66
1X42,	183.	284	15	8.19
1843,	197.5	238	20	101
1844,	176.1	211	7	3.97
1845,	1781	212	21	11.78
1846,	150.7	219	8	5 30
1847,	161.2	372	9	5 57
	180.6	250	7	3 76
1849,		276	4	3.31
1850, 1851,	163.6	207	15	9.10
1852,	131.11	422	20	10.45
1034,	131 11	271	3	2 28
Total, .	4902.78	7875	444	
Average of 31 year	158.15	254 '03	14'32	905

TABLE II., SHOWING THE AVERAGE DAILY STRENGTH AND THE DISEASES FROM WHICH ADMISSIONS INTO HOSPITAL AND DEATHS OCCURRED AMONG THE PRISONERS IN THE MALDAH JAIL FROM 1853 TO 1869.

	선	Admusions from				· • • •	1	24		
Years.	Average daily strength.	Feven	Bowel complaints	Cholera.	Small-por.	Other diseases.	Accidents, etc.	Tetal number of admis- sons unto Hospital.	Total number of deaths	Proportion of deaths to average daily strongth
1853,	154.61	103	102	10	2	4	22	283	9	5.82
1854, .	94'94	66	73		•••	27	7	174	2	3.10
1855, .	83.20	95	100	5	•••	39		247	12	14'37
1856, .	74.65	94	68	· .	•••	14	5 2	181	3	4'01
1857, .	57.12	49	69	1		27		148	!!	1.75
1858, .	39.30	30	29	:::	•••	10	1 2	70 125	2 2	5.08
1859, . 1860, .	47 '79 52 '85	55 28	36 21	2	•	32		64	1 2	3.78
-94-	38 68		16	3	l	9	4	61	1 : 1	3.28
- 94 -	53.32	30 41	16	2	٠.	12	3	71		5 62
1863,	69.40	47		1 7		14	3	101	4	5.76
1864.	72.93	36	34 18	١.٠	i -	15	7	96	i	1.37
1865,	55.60	91	24		ł	13	i	129		5.39
1866, .	61.15	56	32	1	i	39	38	131	3 3 5	4.90
1867, .		ě5	35		l	32	8	140	5	8 69
1868	57.53 87.68	204	115	12	İ	54	18	403	1	4.26 8.29
1869,	93.05	116	113	13	1	73	161	332	8	8.59
Total,	1194.13	1226	901	52	4	424	114	2756	65	•••
Average of 17 years,	70'24	72'11	5370	3.05	.23	24'94	6.40	162-11	3-82	5'44

No epidemic disease among the cattle has been observed of late years in Maldah District.

The melds and fairs, which are numerous and well attended, have a most mischievous influence in the propagation of disease, especially in the case of cholera. The outbreak of cholera of 1868 in the jail can be definitely traced to a prisoner who brought the disease with him from the great Muhammadan gathering in the ruins of Panduah. In the same year, cholera broke out very severely at the bathing festival at Kánsát; and as the pilgrims scattered, they

carried the infection all over Maldah, and into the neighbouring Districts.

INDIGENOUS DRUGS.—The following is a list of the more important vegetable medicines used in the District, as returned by the Civil Surgeon, upon whose accuracy I entirely depend for the botanical names:—(1) Chiretá (Agathotes chirayta); an infusion of the stem is used as a febrifuge and a bitter tonic. (2) Katkaranjá (Cæsalpinia bonduc); the seed is used as a febrifuge. (3) Kuchild (Nux vomica); the seed is used as a tonic for the nerves in paralysis, as an aphrodisiac, and a febrifuge. (4) Khet paprá (Oldenlandia biflora); the juice of the fresh leaves and the stem is used as a tonic and febrifuge. (5) Gulanchá (Cœculus cordifolius): the juice is used as a sebrifuge and tonic. (6) Bhart (Clerodendron viscosum); juice of the leaves used as a febrifuge and bitter tonic. (7) Kálapnáth (Andrographis paniculata); used as a tonic and febrifuge. (8) Nim (Azadiracta Indica); the bark is used as a tonic and febrifuge, and is boiled as an application to sores. (9) Káladáná (Pharbitis nil); the seed is used as a purgative. (10) Karpur (Camphora); used as a stimulant. (11) Ghritá-kumári; used as a laxative and substitute for the aloe of our pharmacopæia. (12) Khadir (Acacia catechu); used as an astringent tonic. plant is not of indigenous growth, but has to be imported. Kurchl (Wrightia antidysenteria); a decoction of the bark is used in dysentery and diarrheea. (14) Thulkuri and thánkuri (Hydrocotyle Asiatica); the juice of the stem and leaves is given to children for dysentery and diarrhoea. (15) Bel (Ægle marmelos); the pulp of the fruit is administered as an astringent and demulcent in cases of dysentery. (16) Amli or tetul (Tamarindus Indica); a laxative and demulcent in dysentery. (17) Jangi haritaki (Terminalia Chebula); the seed is used as a stomachic laxative in dysentery and dyspepsia. (18) Isibgul (Plantago ispagula); a demulcent in dysentery and diarrhoea.

NATIVE PRACTITIONERS.—The kabinijs, or native practitioners, arrange all diseases under certain definite classes, and for each class adopt a mode of treatment and a set of prescriptions which have been handed down from remote antiquity in the Sanskrit works on medicine. Idiopathic fevers, and all local internal inflammations manifested by febrile symptoms externally, are treated in the same way. Starvation for a period of at least a week is so universally ordered by the kabinijs, and so generally admitted by the unpro-

tessional public as the one natural plan, that any treatment without it is viewed with suspicion, and the cures are considered imperfect. No doubt this native method will often be of service in ephemeral or other slight attacks of fever, but it is most dangerous in severe and complicated cases. The pulse is the only guide followed in the diagnosis. Purgatives are rarely administered, through fear of inducing dysentery, which is considered to be a most serious complication. Dysentery is treated on the cooling plan, which must be admitted to be most successful in conquering acute attacks. medicines used in these cases are mostly the juices of certain fresh vegetable drugs, which are demulcent and mildly laxative. These drugs are not always to be found in their medical treatises, and are kept as a secret. Some of them have been enumerated on the previous page. Purgatives are avoided, as being calculated to do more harm than good, on account of their irritating property. When dysentery becomes chronic, the kabirijs are much less able to deal with it; and they find a similar difficulty with diarrhora. these disorders, also, the pulse is their sole guide; they hardly ever examine the tongue, much less the evacuations. For the treatment of cholera there is no traditional method, nor is any mention of this disease to be found in the old Hindu books. As a rule, the kabirájs avoid having anything to do with this new form of pestilence. which thoroughly cowes the whole people. The few who do attempt to treat it depend entirely upon astringents and narcotics. The Civil Surgeon has furnished some of the favourite prescriptions of the kabirájs, from which I select the following, as of a certain interest to the professional reader: -(1) Mestangli, or death-conquering pill, for acute fever: aconite, 1 part; sulphuret of mercury, 2; borax burnt, 1; black pepper, 1; chili, or long pepper, 1,-to be mixed and made into pills of the size of a mig seed or small pea, and to be taken in ginger juice. (2) Lakshmi-bilds, or goodfortune-enjoying pill, for sub-acute fever: calx of talc, 8 parts, sulphuret of mercury, 4; camphor, 1; nutneg, 1; bribati seed, 1; daturá seed, 1 : baricálá, 2 : hijal, 3 : bháng (hemp) seed, 2 , earth-gourd, 2; saldamul (Asparagus sermentosus), 2, gakhuri (Tribulus lanuginosus), 2; gorakhachaulid, 2,-to be mixed together with pan or betel-leaf juice, and made into pills of the size of a rati seed. (3) Sáth bhanjít, or cold-expelling pill, for ague accompanied by distinct shivering or cold stages: sulphuret of mercury, 2 parts; orpiment, 1; bluestone, 1; borax, 1,-to be

mixed together well with the juice of karatá (Momordica Charantia) for 24 hours, then pounded in a copper mortar for 24 hours, and finally dried in a sand-bath and powdered. Dose, 50 grains, to be taken with pán or with black pepper.

CHARITABLE DISPENSARY.—There is only one dispensary in the District, situated at the Civil Station of English Bázár. It was established in 1861, and the entire hospital was rebuilt in 1872. The Government pays the salary of a resident native doctor, and furnishes without charge a supply of surgical instruments and European medicines. The current expenses are more than satisfied by private subscriptions. For 1871 the statistics are as follow: -In-door patients, total treated, 81; relieved or recovered, 32; not improved or ceased to attend, 19; died, 29; 1 remaining in hospital at the close of the year; daily average number of sick, 3'24. Out-door patients, total treated, 4436; average daily attendance, 37'11; number of important operations, 7; of minor operations, 13. The high rate of mortality is to be attributed to the sickness caused by the excessive rains and floods which occurred in this year. Cholera, small-pox, and fever were unusually prevalent. The statistics of 1872, which was a less exceptional year. show that 77 in-cloor patients in all were treated, of whom 50 were cured, 16 did not improve, 9 died, and 2 remained at the end of the year. The average daily attendance was 3'12. The out-door patients numbered 3760, and the average daily attendance was 33.66. The total number of operations was 108, of which 11 are classed as important, and 97 as minor. In 1871 the total income of the dispensary, including balance in hand, amounted to £198, 178. 8 d., and the expenditure to £95, 148. 8d.; the total cost to Government being £66, 6s. 5\d. In 1872 the income amounted to £165, 8s. od., of which sum Government contributed £70; and the expenditure was £236, 14s. od., of which £172, 12s. od. was absorbed by the building of the new hospital.

VITAL STATISTICS.—A new system of registration was adopted in 1873, under which the accurate collection of births and deaths was confined only to a few selected areas. The urban area selected in Maldah is the town of English Bázár, in which the death-rate during 1873 was ascertained to be 30.32 per thousand. The rural area comprises Maldah town and eight adjoining villages, where the corresponding death-rate was 35.97.

STATISTICAL ACCOUNT

OF

THE DISTRICT OF RANGPUR.

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DISTRICT OF RANGPUR'

RANGPUR, a District of the Rajshahi Kuch-Behar Commissionership, is situated between 25° 2′ 50" and 26° 19′ 30" north latitude, and 88° 47′ 0" and 89° 55′ 30" east longitude. It contains a total area, after recent transfers, as returned by the Boundary Commissioner in November 1874, of 3411′54 square miles, exclusive of the larger rivers. The Census Report of 1872 disclosed a total population of 2,149,972 souls. For the pur-

1 The principal official sources from which this Statistical Account has been compiled are as follow .-- (1) Answers to my five series of questions, specially furnished to me by the District officers, and signed by Mr. G. Porter, C.S., and Mr J. Crawford, C.S. (1870-71). (2) Dr. Buchanan Hamilton's Ms. Statistical Survey of Rangpur District, conducted 1809-13. (3) Report on the District of Rangpur, by Mr. E. G. Glazier, C.S., officiating Magistrate and Collector (1873). (4) Report on the Agricultural Statistics of Rangpur for 1872-73, by Bábu Gopál Chandra Das, Deputy-Collector. (5) Census Report of Bengal, 1872, with subsequent District Census Compilation in 1873, by Mr. C. F. Magrath, C.S. (6) Special Report on prevailing rates of rent for different descriptions of land (7) Annual Reports of the Commissioner of the Rajshahi Division 1871-73. (8) Annual Reports of the Inspector-General of Police, particularly that for 1872. (9) Reports of the Inspector-General of Jails for 1870 and 1872, with special statistics for 1856 57, 1860-61, and 1870, compiled in his office. (10) Annual Reports of the Director of Public Instruction, especially that for 1872-73, with special Educational Statistics compiled for the years 1856-57, 1860-61, and 1870-71. (11) Postal Statistics for the years 1861 62, 1865-66. and 1870-71, compiled in the office of the Director-General of Post Offices. (12) Board of Revenue's Parganá Statistics. (13) Statement of areas, latitudes, longitudes, etc., furnished by the Surveyor-General. (14) Annual Reports of the Meteorological Department for 1871 and 1872. (15) Medical Report furnished to me by the Civil Surgeon. (16) Annual Reports on the Chantable Dispersaries of Bengal for 1871 and 1872.

poses of the Census, the total area of the District was taken at 3476 square miles; and for the sake of uniformity I have adopted this number as the basis of all calculations for population averages. The Civil Station and administrative head-quarters of the District is Rangpur town, situated in 25° 44′ 55″ north latitude and 89° 17′ 40″ east longitude. Within the same municipal limits is Mahíganj, the largest town in the District, which lies three or four miles to the south-east of the Civil Station.

BOUNDARIES.—The District is bounded on the north by the District of Jalpáigurí and the semi-independent native state of Kuch Behar, on the east by the Brahmaputra river and the Districts of Goálpárá and Maimansinh, on the south by Bográ District, and on the east by the Districts of Dinájpur and Jalpáigurí.

JURISDICTION AND BRIEF HISTORICAL SKETCH.—The tract comprised within the British District of Rangpur was formerly the western part of the ancient Hindu kingdom of Kámrúp. realm appears to have attained its greatest prosperity under Rájá Nilámbhar, who was treacherously overthrown, about the close of the fifteenth century, by Husain Shah, king of Bengal. On the conquest of the independent kingdom of Bengal by the Afghan general Sher Shah, subsequently Emperor of Dehli, Rangpur was apparently incorporated with the empire. During the turbulent period which followed the death of Sher Shah, it threw off allegiance to Dehli, and was ruled for about forty years by aboriginal princes of the Koch or Kuch Behar dynasty. In 1584 the district was re-annexed to the empire by Akbar, although it was not till 1660-61 that it was completely subjugated by the generals of Aurangzeb. Thereupon the district was re-named Fakirkundi. together with the pargand of Kundl in the sarkar of Bajuhaya, and the chakli of Gorághát, the Province of Rangpur as it was constituted when it passed under the rule of the East India Company, by the farman of the Emperor Shah Alam in 1765. Within the same jurisdiction was also comprised the extensive district of Rangamati, which lay on both sides of the river Brahmaputra, and stretched eastwards to the then independent kingdoin of Assam. In 1773 the adjacent state of Kuch Behar became dependent on British protection, and subject to the payment of a tribute of half its annual revenues into the Rangour treasury.

The records of the earlier years of our administration present a typical picture of the general condition of the country at the time of, and for many years subsequent to, the accession of the East India Company to the diwini or financial administration of Bengal.

The following account of an insurrection among the peasantry, caused by the tyranny and exactions of the native revenue farmer, and of the disturbed state of the Province, as set forth in the old records, is condensed from an excellent report on the District by the Collector, Mr. Glazier (1873):—

'The Districts of Rangpur, Dinájpur, and Idrákpur were let out in farm for the years 1781-83 to a Muhammadan, at a government rental considerably above the old assessment. The diwdn (finance minister) of Dinájpur, Rájá Debí Sinh, became surety for the farmer, and in the end revealed himself as the real principal. Large balances accrued in 1781, owing to bad management, and in the following year the cultivators (aided by the landholders, who had been ousted from possession when their lands were let out in farm) enforced deductions of nearly four likhis of rupees (£40,000). In the end there was discovered a balance of about six likhis of rupees (£60,000); and to realize this deficit before the expiration of his lease, the farmer had recourse to every means that lay in his power.

'In January 1783 the Rangpur cultivators suddenly rose in rebellion, and drove out the revenue officers. They set forth their grievances in a statement submitted to the Collector of the District, who, on hearing of the rising, had made an attempt to appease them. They complained of the levy of a tax known as darivilla, the nature of which does not clearly appear, and also of the discount they had to pay for the exchange of local or nárdyaní rupees into Arcot rupees, in which their rental was payable. The Collector agreed to revert to the previous revenue demand, and the cultivators expressed themselves satisfied, and apparently dispersed. concession, however, did not dispose of the question of the large balances which had accumulated, and the malcontents soon again assembled in larger numbers than before. They forced the cultivators of Kuch Behar to join them, and sent parties into Dinajpur to raise the people there. The insurgents committed several murders, and issued a proclamation that they would pay no more revenue. One of the leaders assumed the title of Nawab; and a

tax called dingkarchd, or sedition tax, was levied for the expenses of the insurrection.

'Matters now looked serious, and active measures were taken to put down the rising. Forces of barkandázs were sent out in various directions, and several encounters took place. In an attempt to burn Mughulhát, the self-styled Nawáb's forces were defeated, and the Nawáb himself wounded and taken prisoner. A party of sepoys under Lieutenant Macdonald marched to the north against the principal body of insurgents. A decisive engagement was fought near Pátgrám on the 22d February 1783. The sepoys disguised themselves by wearing white clothes over their uniform, and by that means got close to the rebels, who were utterly defeated; sixty were left dead on the field, and many others were wounded and taken prisoners.

'Two Commissions sat to inquire into this insurrection, and it was not till February 1789, in the time of Lord Cornwallis, that the final orders of Government were issued. The loss of the large outstanding balances fell principally, if not wholly, upon Rájá Debi Sinh, but, with the exception of the loss of his money, he escaped scot free. Har Ráin, a native of Rangpur, who had been the subfarmer under Debi Sinh, and whose oppressions had brought about the rising, was sentenced to imprisonment for one year, and after its expiration to be binished from the Districts of Rangpur and Dinájpur. Five ringleaders of the insurgents were also banished.'

The general state of the District at the close of the last century is thus described in Mr. Glazier's Report:- 'Rangpur, as a frontier District bordering on Nepál, Bhután, Kuch Behar, and Assam, was peculiarly liable to be infested by banditti, who ravaged the country in armed bands numbering several hundreds. Bhitárband and Swarúppur, detached portions of Rájsháhí, offered great facilities for refuge. In 1784 a military force was despatched against several "herds of dakaits," one of which infested the road between Dinájpur and Rangpur. The tract of country lying south of the stations of Dinappur and Rangpur, and west of the present District of Bogra, towards the Ganges, was a favourite haunt of these banditti, being far removed from any central In 1787, Lieutenant Brenan was employed in this quarter against a notorious leader of dakdits (gang robbers), named Bhawani Pathak. He despatched a native officer, with twenty-four sepoys, in search of the robbers, who surprised Pathak, with sixty

of his followers, in their boats. A fight took place, in which Pathak himself and three of his lieutenants were killed, and eight wounded. besides forty-two taken prisoners. Pathak was a native of Bajpur. and was in league with another noted dakiit, named Mainu Shah. who made yearly raids from the southern side of the Ganges. We catch a glimpse from the Lieutenant's report of a female dakdit, by name Debi Chaudhráni, also in league with Pathak. She lived in boats, had a large force of barkandáss in her pay, and committed dakditis on her own account, besides receiving a share of the booty obtained by Pathak. Her title of Chaudhrání would imply that she was a samindar, probably a petty one, else she need not have lived in boats for fear of capture. Regarding the complicity of the landowners with the dakdits, Lieutenant Brenan makes the following observations: - "The principal samindars in most parts of these Districts have always a banditti ready to let loose on such of their unfortunate neighbours as have any property worth seizing, and even the lives of the unhappy sufferers are seldom spared. The samindirs commit these outrages with the most perfect security, as there is no reward offered for their detection, and, from the dependence of the dakaits upon them, they cannot be detected without bribery."

'In 1789 we have an account of a large body of bandits who had occupied the Baikunthpur forest, which lies at the apex of the District, right under the hills, whence they issued on their predatory excursions. The forest was composed of tree jungle interwoven with cane, and was impassable except by narrow winding paths, known only to the dakdits. The Collector got together a force of two hundred barkanddiss, and held all the entrances into this forest. Some months elapsed before any decisive result was obtained. Several skirmishes ensued. The robbers were at length starved out: some escaped into Nepál and Bhután, but great numbers were captured, including their leader and several of his principal associates. Within twelve months, in this and other parts of the District, the Collector arrested and brought to trial 549 dakdits.

Large bodies of Sanyásis traversed the District, levying contributions on the villagers. In 1782 we read of a body of seven hundred persons, consisting of Sanyásis and Musalmán fakirs, with horses, camels, elephants, and arms of all kinds. Lieutenant Macdonald was sent against them with 180 sepoys, and he brought in the leaders of the gang, but their followers escaped into the hills. Three years later, as many as 1500 crossed the Brahmaputra at Diwánganj; they had

rockets, jinjal pieces, and 110 horses. Besides these wandering thieves, there were numbers of Sanyásís who settled down in hermitages, which they fortified, and where they carried on their trade of money-lending, combined with dakáití. A report to the Board of Revenue, dated 29th April 1789, makes mention of the seizure of two dakáit boats of 80 and 100 cubits in length, belonging to head Sanyásís, and gives a detailed account of the oppressions practised by these scourges, not only on the cultivators but on the zamindárs and their officers, whom they carried off and confined until their demands were satisfied.

'The sepoy officers had full occupation in dealing with local insurrections, gangs of dakdits, raids from Nepál, and troubles in Kuch Behar. The barkandás establishment employed in the District numbered three hundred men, afterwards reduced to half that strength after the successful operations of the Collector against the dakdits. In addition to this establishment, a native officer and twenty-five sepoys were stationed at Baikunthpur, and a like force at Dimlá. Boundary disputes between the zamindárs of adjoining Districts cropped up in abundance, sometimes resulting in riots and loss of life.'

Such was the state of Rangpur ninety years ago. At the present day it is a quiet Bengal District,—not a single soldier is stationed there, and such a thing as armed opposition to Government authority is unknown. Landed disputes, caused by the ever-changing currents of the Brahmaputra, are still numerous; but instead of being decided by club-law, as formerly, they are submitted to the peaceful arbitrament of the civil courts. By the close of the last century the improved administration which we had given to the people made itself felt. Order was firmly maintained; and since that time Rangpur has rapidly advanced in prosperity. Organized gang robberies and agrarian crimes have been repressed by the increased efficiency of the police. Education has been diffused among the people. The revenue has largely developed, while a very much greater sum is now spent on the civil government. The progress of the District will be fully dealt with in a subsequent section of this Account, when I come to treat of the Administrative Statistics.

CHANGES IN JURISDICTION.—Numerous changes have taken place in the jurisdiction of Rangpur since it passed under British administration in 1765, in consequence of which the District area has been much diminished. Rángámátí and Dhubrí, which, under the name of North Rangpur, were formerly included in the District, have been erected into the new District of Goalpara, now included in the adiacent Province of Assam. Govindganj Fiscal Division, formerly included in Rangour, has been transferred to Bográ; and the following thirteen Fiscal Divisions transferred from Bográ to Rangpur : - Kábilpur, Baháman - Kundá, Khámár Mahal, Babanpur, Mukhtipur, Sultanpur, Khas Taluk, Bajitpur, Palasbari, Siksahar, Barisákpalá, Kunj Gorághát, and Maimunthpur. The three police circuits (thánás) of Fakírganj, Bodá, and Sanyásíkatá were transferred to the newly-formed District of Jalpaiguri from the commencement of 1869. The tháná of Pátgrám was also separated from Rangpur and added to Jalpaiguri from the 1st April 1870. The criminal, revenue, and civil jurisdictions of Rangpur are not conterminous. Thus, the criminal jurisdiction comprises an area of 3411'54 square miles, after a deduction of 123'2 square miles for the basins of large navigable rivers; while the revenue area, after a similar deduction, amounts to 3720 square miles. The difference between the criminal and revenue jurisdictions arises from a portion of parganá Pátiládahá being borne on the rent-roll of Rangpur, while it lies within the criminal jurisdiction of thana Diwanganj in Maimansinh District. The civil jurisdiction of Rangpur extends over the whole of the neighbouring District of Bográ.

Physical Aspects and Superficial Configuration. - The District is one vast plain, without natural elevations of any The greater part of it, particularly towards the east. is of a low level; and the Collector estimates that upwards of a third of the total area is inundated during the rainy season. The general inclination of the surface is from north-west to southeast, as indicated by the flow of the great rivers, the Brahmaputra, Tístá, Karátoyá, and Dharlá. Besides these main channels, the whole District is intersected by a network of water-courses, forming cross lines of communication between the great rivers. The District contains, also, numerous jhils, or small stagmant sheets of water or marshes, found either in the deserted channels of streams, or formed by the overflowing of springs. The numbers and position of these jhils vary considerably at different times, the old ones either silting up, or becoming gradually obliterated by accumulations of decaying vegetation; while new ones are continually being formed by alterations in the courses of the rivers, or from other YOL VII.

causes. In 1871 the Collector reported that these marshes were becoming less numerous and smaller in size than formerly. They still form, however, a source of unhealthiness; and their reclamation, besides adding considerably to the cultivable area of the District, would be the greatest sanitary benefit that could be conferred upon the people. The northern portion of Rangpur (from the Civil Station northwards) abounds in large sandy plains, alternated with low loam and clay rice lands.

RIVER SYSTEM.—Although the District is traversed by a network of streams and water-courses in every direction, the only rivers navigable throughout the year by trading boats of a hundred maunds, or from three to four tons burden, are the Brahmaputra and the Tistá (Trisrotá); and the navigation of the latter river is dangerous in the cold season, on account of the shoals and quicksands which form at its point of junction with the Brahmaputra. All the rivers of Rangpur are navigable by boats of about fifty maunds (2 tons) burden in the rainy season. Owing to the number of the channels, their frequent changes of course, and the varying names for the same stream in different places, it would be hopeless to attempt a detailed description of all the rivers in the District.

Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, in his Ms. materials for Rangpur, written about the year 1800, thus describes the difficulty he experienced in properly tracing the rivers:—'Since the survey was made by Major Rennell (about thirty years ago), the rivers of this District have undergone such changes that I find the utmost difficulty in tracing them. The soil is so light, and the rivers in descending from the mountains have acquired such force, that frequent and great changes are unavoidable. Old channels have been swept away, and new ones are constantly forming. The nomenclature is therefore exceedingly difficult. After tracing the name of a river for some distance, you all of a sudden lose it, and perhaps recover the same name at a distance of twenty miles, while many large rivers intervene, and no channel remains to assist in the discovery of the The old channels have not only lost their former connection. current of water, but have been entirely obliterated by cultivation, or by beds of sand thrown into them by newly-formed rivers. In some instances different portions of the same river remain, while others have been lost, and the intervals are filled up by new channels; so that apparently the same river has various names in different parts of its course. The confusion that has arisen from

these circumstances is so great, that Major Rennell seems to have been overpowered, or unwilling to waste time in the investigation, and, owing to the contradictory accounts given by the natives, to have altogether avoided giving names to many of the rivers.' The following is a brief description of the principal rivers of Rangpur, with their chief tributaries and offshoots.

THE BRAHMAPUTRA flows along the eastern boundary of the District, separating it from Godlpárá and Maimansinh Districts. Many tracts of alluvial land, however, on the east bank of the Brahmaputra belong to Rangpur, owing to the shifting character of the channel of the river; some also on the western bank are included within the jurisdiction of Goalpara. The Brahmaputra first touches the District in its north-east corner at Majhiall, about eight miles south-west of Dhubri, the headquarters of a Subdivision in the neighbouring District of Godlpdrd. It then skirts the eastern boundary, flowing almost due south for about eighty miles, till it finally leaves Rangpur at a village called Nalchia, in the extreme south-eastern corner of the District. The Brahmaputra is capable of floating native trading-boats of large burden throughout the year; and the light draught of the Assam steamers permits them to proceed up and down the river at all seasons. times, however, the navigation is somewhat difficult. In the rainy months the current is remarkably strong; whilst in the dry season the large number of shoals and sandbanks which obstruct the channel renders the navigation difficult. The banks of the river are either abrupt or shelving, according as the current sets from one side of the stream or the other; the bed is sandy. The most noticeable features on this great river are the immense number of islands and sandbanks formed by its current, and the constant changes they undergo. On this subject I quote the following from Dr. Buchanan Hamilton's Ms. Statistical Survey of Rangpur (1809) :- 'The islands of the Brahmaputra and its low banks are undergoing constant changes. Wherever its current is directed against their sandy sides. they are undermined and swept away. But as the force of the current is always confined to a small portion of the channel, the sand thus carried away is deposited the moment it happens to escape out of the most rapid parts of the stream; and this deposition increases rapidly whenever, from the accumulation of sand, the stream is more completely diverted to other parts. The sand is often so rapidly deposited that it rises almost level with the inundation, and

in such cases must always continue barren. In general, however, when the water over a newly-formed sand becomes entirely stagnant. the clay and earth that are held in suspension in the muddy stream immediately subside. This, however, does not often happen in the first year; at least the quantity of silt then deposited is usually small, and only enables tamarisks and reeds to take root, which they do with astonishing vigour, and give some degree of stability to the new land. The quantity of soil deposited in three or four years is usually sufficient to render the soil fit for cultivation, and to raise it to within a foot or two of the level of the floods. It is evident that a deposition from the river can never raise it higher, although the dust collected by wind around bushes raises some few spots a few inches above the high water-mark. The surface, however, of these islands and banks is by no means level, but undulating, so that some parts are nearly on a level with the surface of the water in the highest floods, while others are covered to a depth of twenty feet. Nor can this occasion wonder, if we consider the irregular manner in which the deposit must take place, owing to differences in the stillness of various parts of the water. Subsequent floods, if continued for ages, would no doubt bring the whole to a level, by gradually depositing much mud where the depth of water was great, and none where the soil had risen to the level of high water-mark. But time is, perhaps, nowhere allowed for such tedious operations, and there are probably very few spots in these inundated parts that have continued for a century without having been swept away.' The changes noticed by Buchanan Hamilton upwards of half a century ago are still going on, and shiftings of the river channels are as frequent as ever. For some years past, the Brahmaputra has been steadily encroaching on its right or western bank. Mr. Collector Glazier, in his Report on the District in 1873, states: 'At Chilmari the police station has been twice removed farther inland within five years; and at Kálíganj a large brick house belonging to a Calcutta firm, which was situated more than a mile from the river bank. has been washed into the stream, which is still breaking away westwards.' The principal tributaries of the Brahmaputra on its western bank, within Rangour District, are the Tista, Dharla, Sankos, and Dudhkumár.

THE TISTA (Trisrotá) is the second river in importance. It enters Rangpur from Julpáigurí about six miles north of the village of Baruní, and runs across the District from north-west to south-

east, till it falls into the Brahmaputra a few miles to the southwest of Chilmari police station in Bhawaniganj Subdivision; its length is estimated at about a hundred and ten miles within Rangour District. This river has a fine channel, from six to eight hundred yards wide, containing a large volume of water at all times of the year, and a rapid current. Although reported capable of floating large trading boats of a hundred maunds, or between three and four tons burden, at all seasons, navigation is said to be difficult in the cold weather, on account of the shoals and quicksands which form at its junction with the Brahmaputra. Several islands and sandbanks are formed by the current, but these are fewer in number and of much smaller size than those in the Brahmaputra. The bed of the river is of sand. The lower part of the Tista, from Kapasia to Nalgani-hat, is also called the Pagla river. The Tista is noted for frequent and violent changes in its course; and many old channels are found, such as the Chhotá Tístá, Burá Tístá, and Mará Tístá, each of which at one time must have formed the main channel of the river, but which are now deserted, and only navigable in the rainy season. At the time of Major Rennell's Survey, the main stream of the Tista flowed south instead of south-east as at present, joined the Atrai river in Dinajpur, and finally fell into the Padma or Ganges. In the destructive floods of 1194 B.S., or 1787 A.D., which form an epoch in the history of Rangpur, the stream suddenly forsook its channel, and turned its waters into a small branch marking an ancient bed of the same river; running south-east into the Brahmaputra, it forced its way through the fields and over the country in every direction, and filled the Ghághát, Manás, and other rivers to overflowing. An account of this inundation and its disastrous effects will be given on a subsequent page, when I come to treat of the natural calamities of the District. It is impossible to say when the Tista had previously deserted its ancient channel, to which it reverted in 1787. Since the great change of that year, the river has made for itself another channel. The collector, Mr. Glazier, states: 'In the early part of this century, it [the Tistal] forsook a westward bend of about forty miles in the upper part of its course, taking a less circuitous bend in the opposite direction. It has since adhered to the course then formed, but with alarming encroachments on its sandy banks in several places. A large mart, Gorámárá, on the western bank, has been pushed gradually backward, until not a vestige remains of the village from which it takes its name.' The

confusion in the nomenclature of the rivers to the west of the District is mainly caused by these frequent changes in the course of the Tístá. The Tístá receives numerous small tributary streams from the northwest, and also throws off many offshoots of more or less importance. The largest of these is the Ghághát. The Manás is a branch of the Tístá, which again joins the parent stream after a winding course of about twenty-five miles.

THE DHARLA, another tributary of the Brahmaputra, is a branch of the Torsha river, from which it bifurcates in Kuch Behar. first touches on Rangpur at the village of Durgápur, where it receives the waters of the Ialdhaka river from Kuch Behar, the united stream running on as the Dharlá. For a few miles this river marks the boundary between Rangpur and Kuch Behar. It then turns south and enters the District. After a course of a few miles, it receives the waters of the Torshá, its parent stream, whence it flows in a tortuous south-easterly course till it falls into the Brahmaputra at Bagwa. The bed of this river is sandy, and the current rapid; and numerous shallows and shifting sands render navigation extremely difficult. The banks are low and shelving, and the river is liable to constant changes of course; length in its course through Rangpur District, 55 miles. The following description of this river is taken from Dr. Buchanan Hamilton's Ms. Report on Rangpur. be remembered, however, that it refers to a period of upwards of half a century ago, and many of the statements may, therefore, be inapplicable at the present time: 'Concerning the upper part of the course of the Dharlá, I received no intelligence on which I could depend. From [Kuch] Behar it enters the Company's territory of Pátgrám as a river with a large winding channel, which in the dry season contains a small clear stream, not generally navigable, but which during the floods is occasionally frequented by boats of two hundred maunds [about seven tons] burden. If, however, a few fair days occur, the boats are liable to be left dry. It passes through the Patgram Division for about fifteen miles, and then re-enters [Kuch] Behar, from whence it returns very much enlarged into the Division of Barábári. Soon after the time of Major Rennell's survey, it would seem to have received the greater part of the Torshi. For some miles it forms the boundary between Barábári and Behar, and here has on its right bank a considerable mart, named Mughul-hat. The river at this mart has for some years been diminishing, owing to part of the Torshá having been directed to other channels; but

boats of three nundred maunds [about ten tons] burden can still [1809] ascend the river thus far at all seasons. From the place where both banks of the Dharlá belong to the Company, the river passes for fourteen miles through the Division of Barábári, but winds exceedingly in its course.

The banks of the rivers in this District are scarcely anywhere higher than the other parts of the country; on the contrary, they are in general very low. And the inundation, far from raising the ground by a deposit of sediment, seems gradually to be sinking the rivers deeper and deeper below the level of the plains, which, in a country so well supplied with rain, is a fortunate circumstance. this part of the course of the Dharlá I had a satisfactory proof of this circumstance. I saw three different channels which the river has occupied successively, of which the oldest is the highest, and the most recent is the lowest. On this part of the course of the Dharlá is a large mart named Kulághát. Immediately above this, the Dharlá receives a small river, the Kotnayi. After having passed through Barábári, and having reached the boundary of the Nakeswari Division, the Dharlá receives a river that is wider than itself, but its stream is not so rapid. It is named the Nilkumár; but in some parts of its course it is called the Burá (old) Dharlá, which would imply that it had at one period been a channel of the Dharlá. There is no mart on its banks; and after it enters the Dharlá, that river proceeds by a very circuitous course to join the Brahmaputra, distant about fifteen miles. A few miles below its junction with the Nilkumár, the Dharlá divides into two channels, which after a short course re-unite, forming an island opposite Kuriganj. On this lower course of the Dharlá are five marts, - Bhagdánga, Panchgáchhí, Mughulbachhá, Kuriganj, and Beguyá, from which goods are im. ported and exported at all seasons. The river does not increase in depth-as it approaches the Brahmaputra, and has a bar across its mouth, which in the dry season prevents the entrance of large boats."

THE SANKOS enters Rangpur District from Kuch Behar at a place called Tilái, flows a tortuous southerly course for about forty-eight running miles, and falls into the Brahmaputra near a little village called Chhot.i Paikár. Another branch of the same river also falls into the Brahmaputra a mile or so higher up than the one first mentioned.

THE DUDHKUMAR, the only other tributary of the Brahmaputra deserving of mention, enters Rangpur District at a place called

Musaldanga, and flows a general south-easterly course till it falls into the Brahmaputra at Nunkhawa.

THE KARATOYA is the most important river in the west of the District. It formed the boundary between the Bengal and Kamrup kingdoms at the time of the Mahábhárat, and since that epoch has generally marked the eastern limit of the rule of the successive Bengal dynasties. The numerous changes in the course of the Tista have left in the west of the District a maze of old water-courses and stagnant marshes, so as to render it nearly impossible to trace the course of the former rivers. In many parts of its course the Karátoyá is still known as the Burá or Old Tistá; and the broad sandy channel in many places indicates the route followed by the Tista, before the great changes caused by the inundation in 1787. The present Karatoyá forms for some distance the boundary between Rangpur and Dinájpur, then crosses Gobindganj tháná and passes into Bográ District. In its course through Rangour it receives two tributaries from the east, each of greater volume than itself, the Sarbamangálá and Jubáneswárí.

THE GHAGHAT flows through the centre of the District. It was formerly an important branch of the Tístá, and, previous to the change in the course of that river at the close of last century, was a main channel of communication. Its opening from the Tístá at Nahálí, however, has now nearly silted up. It flows thence in a south-easterly direction, with a very winding channel and a sluggish stream, till it passes into Bográ District at Aguntarí, after a course of about 114 running miles through Rangpur. In the lower parts of its course the Ghághát receives the name first of the Alái, and then of the Bengalí river.

THE MANAS, a branch of the Tistá, leaves the parent stream at Káligáchhi, and empties itself into the same river again after running a course of about thirty miles. The beds of this and of the abovementioned river are of sand; banks sloping, and not liable to any sudden or violent changes of course.

THE GUJARIA is a considerable channel which breaks off from the Tístá shortly before that river falls into the Brahmaputra. It flows in a southerly direction for about thirty miles, when it bifurcates, one branch falling into the Brahmaputra, the other, under the name of the Murá Manás, taking a south-westerly course, till it falls into the Bengalí river just south of the point where the latter stream passes from Rangpur into Bográ District. The foregoing is a brief description of the principal rivers and streams; but the District is everywhere interlaced with innumerable small creeks and water-courses, all of which are navigable by native boats of fifty maunds, or say two tons burden, in the rainy season. None of the rivers are fordable in the rainy season; and the Brahmaputra and Tistá are nowhere fordable at any time of the year. The police returns show the loss of life in Rangpur from drowning for the three years ending 1869 as follows:—In 1867, 87; in 1868, 113; in 1869, 142: average for the three years, 114. These, however, are only the cases reported to the police; and the real loss of life from drowning is probably much greater than here set down. In the year 1871-72, 118 ferries were maintained on the different rivers in Rangpur District, and farmed out in that year for the sum of £2257.

RIVER-SIDE TOWNS.—Many large villages in Rangpur District, situated on the banks of the Brahmaputra, Tístá, Dharlá, and Sankos, are inhabited by communities maintained principally by river traffic. These villages serve as depôts, where the produce of the District is collected and bought up by wealthy mahdjans or merchants, who ship it in country boats to Calcutta, Sirájganj, or elsewhere. A list of the principal of these river trading-marts will be found on page 309.

LAKES, MARSHES, ETC.—Rangpur District contains numerous broad sheets of stagnant water or marshes, called *jhils* or *bils*, principally formed by the numerous changes which have taken place in the channels of the larger rivers, particularly the Tístá. These marshes are gradually becoming shallower, and are diminishing both in size and number. Most of them are covered with a thick crust of decaying aquatic vegetation. The decay of these plants, together with the deposit of silt washed down from the high lands, causes the marshes gradually to fill up. The largest of these marshes in Rangpur are the following:—(1) Barábíl, (2) Chaurddá Bhuban, (3) Nalagáchhí, (4) Chiklí, (5) Kukrul, and (6) Hatiár. There are no canals or artificial water-courses in the District.

UTILIZATION OF THE WATER SUPPLY.—None of the rivers or streams are utilized as a motive power for turning machinery, nor have they sufficient fall to render it likely that they could be so applied, by the construction of dams or weirs. River water is scarcely if ever used for irrigation, the ordinary rainfall being in general amply sufficient for the purpose.

MARSH CULTIVATION AND RECLAMATION.—No rivers or marshes are embanked for the purpose of extending cultivation; and the Collector (1871) is of opinion that any interference with the general drainage of the country by the construction of such embankments would result in more harm than good. The river banks and marshes are nowhere utilized as reed or cane producing grounds, nor do they appear to possess any capabilities for such cultivation. The long-stemmed description of rice is cultivated in many of the Rangpur marshes and low lands. The seventeen principal varieties of this rice are as follow:—(1) Byát, (2) singriá, (3) kálámaná, (4) bagájhul, (5) bagá, (6) dhepá, (7) barpání-súil, (8) khálí-sáni-byát, (9) kásáhár, (10) dhalámaná, (11) dulái, (12) mágri, (13) chápágárí, (14) bungal-dariya, (15) kundiswas, (16) boupagri, and (17) dal-kachu. Of the foregoing list, the eight first-named kinds thrive in from seven to eight feet of water, while the last nine grow in a depth of twelve feet of water without danger of being destroyed, provided that they are not entirely submerged for any length of time by a sudden rise of the flood.

FISHERIES.—There are no regular fishing towns in Rangpur District, although fishing is carried on to a large extent by many of the poorer cultivators all over the District, as well as by professional The Collector in 1871 estimated the proportion of the inhabitants living by fishing to be about one-twentieth of the total population of the District. According to the Census of 1872, this would give a total fishing population of 107,498. The Collector's estimate seems to be much too low, for the Census returned the number of Hindu fishing and boating castes at 162,447, exclusive of the Muhammadans, who form a considerable majority, or 60 per cent., of the District population. The Collector has been unable to obtain any accurate information regarding the value of the fisheries. As regards the ordinary modes of catching fish followed by the cultivators and professional fishermen of Rangpur, I quote the following in a somewhat condensed form from Buchanan Hamilton's Ms. Account of Rangpur before cited:-

'In every ditch where there is a considerable drain from a rice field, and in every small rivulet draining from the marshes, the cultivators construct a dam or fence of bamboos, sticks and reeds, or sometimes of earth, which not only prevents the passage of the fish, but also impedes in some degree the escape of the water until it rises to the level of the adjacent fields. They then dig three or

four narrow semicircular trenches, which convey the water from the higher to the lower part of the channel. The fish must pass through these narrow channels in going from the higher part to the lower, as the water falls, and are caught in traps called thorkd, placed at the lower ends of the semicircular canals. This trap is a conical basket gradually lengthened out to a point, so that the fish on reaching its far end cannot turn to escape. A smaller kind of cylindrical basket, called dengru, is often used instead of the thorki, the fish being prevented from escaping by a row of flexible split bamboos converging to a point within its mouth, as in a mouse-trap. In rivulets with a large or rapid current, thorkd traps fourteen or fifteen feet in length are often used. A dam is made across the stream with a breach in it just sufficient to receive the mouth of the thorká, and the fish follow the stream until they are no longer able to turn within the trap.

'The Rajbansis catch fish in shallow ditches and rivulets by a somewhat similar contrivance. A trap is placed in the stream, called a dhangi, constructed of split bamboos, and having a mouth six or eight feet in length and one and a half or two feet wide. It slopes to an edge behind from two to three feet broad. The fish that enter are prevented from returning by a row of split bamboos placed as in a mouse-trap. The fish are shaken out of the cage by a hole in one corner, which is plugged when the trap is set. Where there is any current, the fish enter of their own accord; but they are often collected from a whole marsh and driven towards the trap, by dragging through the water a rope made of plantain-tree leaves. The regular fishermen in the smaller rivers in the eastern part of the District trap fish in the following manner. A dam is thrown obliquely across the river, constructed of bamboos, sticks, and mats, so as not to retain all the water, but to raise it about a foot higher than the level below the dam. Near the lower end of this dam is left an opening about two feet wide, and below this is a channel about twenty feet long. The sides of this channel are secured by posts and mats: and the floor, which consists of closely-laid bamboo. is raised a little higher than the level of the river below, and a little lower than its level above the dam. All fish attempting to go down the river follow the current through the opening in the dam: by the time they reach the lower end of the channel they are left dry, and are taken out by the fishermen who are on the watch.

'The method of catching fish by collecting them among the

branches of trees thrown into stagnant water is largely practised in Rangour, and most of the fish taken in Chilmari and other tracts near the Brahmaputra are captured in this manner. Large quantities of branches are thrown in until they reach the surface, and are held down by weights. After they have remained submerged for six or seven days, bamboo stakes are driven all round, and a net is fastened to them deep enough to reach from the surface to the bottom, and long enough to completely surround the stakes. The branches are then thrown out and the fish drawn on shore. At one water-course I saw eleven men at work in this manner. They seemed to draw one heap almost every day, and did no other work, the fish being bought from them on the spot. The chik is a net, the framework of which consists of a hoop to which four bamboos are fixed in the form of a cone. A conical net is fastened to the hoop, and its corner to the angle where the bamboos unite. When this net has been placed on the mud over a fish, the corner is dropped, which prevents the fish from moving, and it is at once caught. Large fish. such as boyall, chital, arl, and mireal are taken by this contrivance.

'The simplest sort of net used by fishermen consists of a mesh stretched between two bamboos, which meet at an acute angle behind. This net, called phutkl, is only used for catching small fish. The fisherman wades in shallow water, and pushes the net before him. The pahd is used for catching large fish, such as the ilis or hilsd, ritd, ruhi, kochd, and pangds. The net, which is stretched between two bamboos of eleven or twelve cubits in length, is worked from a boat, the fisherman lowering and raising it by his hands. The angihad is a net of the same size, and is used in the same manner as the foregoing, but the mesh is smaller. Both nets can be used at all seasons and in every part of the great rivers. The janta is a net raised and lowered from a framework of bamboos. The net lasts for about two years; but the apparatus, which is more costly, must be renewed each fishing season, which usually lasts from the middle of August to the middle of December, that is, from the time when the inundations commence to subside, until the country is dry. The mouth of the net is placed so as to receive the water which drains from the fields into marshes or small streams.

'Three varieties of casting nets are used: (1) A small net with a radius of six or seven feet, a small mesh, and iron sinkers. In the Brahmaputra or large rivers it is always used from a boat, one man paddling and the other throwing the net. In marshes and small

streams the net is usually thrown from the bank. The fish taken by this means are of small size. (2) A net with a wide mesh, and fifteen or sixteen feet in radius. It is used only from a boat and on the larger rivers, being managed in the same manner as the net first described. Large fish are caught by this net, such as the ruhi, hailá, chitál, mirgál, ári, and boyáli. (3) A large net cast by means of a boat, and called other. Seines or drag-nets of various kinds are also in use. In some parts the fishermen use a seine usually composed of nine pieces, each thirty feet long and about four feet wide. The floats are made of khágrá reeds, and the sinkers of baked clay. These pieces separately are called conalangi, but when joined together the whole net is called ber. Three men are usually employed in managing such a net, and each brings three portions of it: they unite in paying the hire of the canoe or boat. One man manages the boat, a second holds one end of the net, while the third takes a sweep with the other end; the net is then drawn on shore. It is only used near the banks of the rivers where the water is of no great depth, or in shallow marshes or lakes. In some parts a smaller seine is used, called gondlá. It is about thirty cubits long by four broad, and is used by one man, who fastens one end of it to a stake and takes a sweep with the other. It is never used where the water is of a greater depth than two or three feet. Another description of net is like a large deep seine, from forty five to eighty yards long and four or five deep, with floats and sinkers and a large mesh. It is used sometimes merely as a stationary net, being stretched from side to side of a river or water-course. The fishermen then go to a distance on both sides, and paddle towards the net in their canoes, making all the noise they can by splashing in the water. The fish stick in the meshes of the net. At other times, where the river is too wide for a single net to stretch from bank to bank, two separate nets are used, and five canoes are employed, one at each end of each of the nets, and one that remains between the two nets. One-half of each net is stowed in the stern of the canoe by which it is held. The two sets of boats commence operations by separating about forty or fifty yards apart. They then throw out their nets, the canoes belonging to each rowing straight away from each other, so as to leave the nets in two parallel straight lines, with the fifth canoe in the centre. The boatmen then begin to paddle so as to form their nets into semicircles, after which the two boats belonging to each net row towards each other, splashing the water as much as possible until they meet. They then lash their boats together, and draw the nets into their sterns, bringing up the head and foot ropes of the net joined together. After the whole is drawn, the net is overhauled, and the fish, which are sticking in the meshes, are taken out. In rivers it is the upper net which takes by far the greater quantity of fish, and the middle canoe attends to that alone, and splashes opposite to the opening as the two canoes at its ends paddle towards each other. This seems to be a good plan of fishing in rivers or lakes where the banks are too steep for drawing the seine. The fish that I saw taken in this manner were about four pounds in weight.

'In the Brahmaputra during the rainy season, from the middle of April to the middle of August, a floating net called *shal* is used. It consists of three pieces, each thirty-six yards long and three and a quarter broad, with a wide mesh. The net is paid out from the stern of a canoe, one side being floated by gourds, while the other sinks with its own weight. It is drawn into the boat every hour, and the fish left sticking in the meshes are secured. The net is worked from one boat manned by two men.

'Besides traps and nets, the harpoon or spear is used for catching fish. The Ganrárs, a low caste of Hindus, who kill crocodiles, turtles, and otters, catch fish also with the harpoon. With the same weapon used for killing the otter, these men strike large fish, such as the ruhi, katiá, mahásál, chitál, ári, kocha, boyálí, gajal, sáil, etc. In the rainy season they attract the fish to their boats by means of torches. In the dry season they watch near shallow places where there are many fry, and when a large fish comes to prey, he is transfixed. The same fishermen also use a small harpoon with four slender prongs, which floats, and is darted along the surface of the water to kill a small mullet which swims with its eyes above water. This is done at all seasons.

'Rod fishing is practised by all classes. The rod used is a bamboo, which has very little flexibility. The line is either silk or kinkhuri (Urtica rivea), tied to the end of the rod, without any reel to lengthen or shorten it. The hook is suspended from a float, and baited with a worm for the cyprinidæ, and with a frog for the larger siluridæ or pimelodes, which are the two most common classes of fish. The use of artificial flies is totally unknown.

'In most parts the regular fisherman pays a duty to the proprietor of the estate through which the stream passes. Some rivers, how-

ever, are entirely free, as having been the boundary between two large estates. The rates and method of assessment differ in almost every estate, and it would be endless to detail them. The rent is sometimes levied by so much on each man, sometimes by so much on each net, sometimes in proportion to the extent of water, and sometimes according to the quantity of fish taken. The two former methods are most usual on the great rivers, and the two latter in marshes, small rivers, and water-courses. The landlords very seldom receive the rents directly from the fishermen, but generally farm their fisheries to persons for a fixed sum, and these latter levy the rates on the fishermen, according to the custom of the estate. In general, the duties seem moderate enough, and except at one place I heard no complaint on the part of the fishermen.' A list of fishes will be found on pages 202-204.

LINES OF DRAINAGE.—The general drainage of Rangpur is from north-west to south-east, as indicated by the course of the principal rivers. The river banks being generally higher than the surrounding country, the surface drainage first finds its way into the *jhils* and marshes, and thence by small streams into the large rivers. The soil of the District being principally sandy, the water is rapidly absorbed.

No MINERALS, coal, or building stone occur in Rangpur District; nor are there any caverns, hot springs, or interesting phenomena, such as picturesque gorges or passes.

Forests. — There are no important or large revenue-yielding forests in the present District of Rangpur. A short distance south of the village of Baripara, in the police circuit (thana) of Phuranbara, there is a sal forest of about six miles in circumference. It is private property; and the Collector in 1871 reported to me that he was unable to ascertain its annual value, as the trees were not then sold by the proprietor. Another forest, called the Panga jhar, is situated close to the village of Panga, in the police circuit of Barabara. It is eight miles in circumference, and is composed of chana and other trees; it contains also thick canes, which are sold for sticks.

Dr. Buchanan. Hamilton, in his Statistical Survey of Northern Bengal, devoted special attention to the botany of the country; and it may be as well to reproduce in the following pages (but of necessity in a greatly condensed form) a list of the cultivated and forest trees enumerated by that gentleman in his Ms. Report on Rangpur, prepared about the year 1809. It must be remembered, however, that

the Rangpur of Buchanan Hamilton's time included the whole of the present District of Goálpárá, and a great portion of what is now included in Jalpáigurí. Many trees mentioned in the following list, therefore, are probably not met with in the tract which constitutes the existing District of Rangpur.

PALMS.—Of the palm species, the following eléven varieties are met with:—(1) The ram-guya found in Goalpara is a different tree from the palm of the same name in Dinájpur, and is a small species of areca, with a very thin stem eight or nine feet high. It grows in moist woods. The kuni suphri is another small species of areca which grows in the woods of Pangá. (2) The guya (Areca catechu), called the betel-nut palm by the English; is largely cultivated in this District. It is of two varieties,—the deswall, a kind peculiar to Rangpur, and the bangálá, a variety apparently introduced from the eastern districts of Lower Bengal. flowers between the middle of August and the middle of September, and ripens between the early part of February and the beginning of April. The bangálá variety flowers in June-July, and ripens between the middle of October and the middle of December. The bangald kind is now by far the most common; indeed, the other is only cultivated in small quantities in the more remote parts of the District. (3) The cocoa-nut palm. This valuable tree, although much neglected, produces abundance of fruit in certain portions of the District. (4) The kh.jur or date-palm (Elate) is also greatly neglected, and at the present day (1874) only a few trees are found scattered here and there. The people do not seem to be acquainted with the art of tapping the tree, and of converting the juice into sugar or spirits. (5) In most parts of Rangpur the Caryota of botanists is called chau. It is chiefly found in thickets near villages. The tree does not grow so luxuriantly as on the Malabar coast, but it is by far the most elegant of the Bengal palms. It is hardly applied to any use, both the juice and the pith being equally neglected. In some tracts where iron is not used for the plough, a piece of this wood is often substituted, being harder than bamboo, which is also used for the same purpose. (6) Nearly related to the above is a dwarf palm which grows on the hills all the way from Goálpárá to Chittagong. It is here called karkati, but is not applied to any use. (7) The Cycas of botanists, another palm found in this District, is sometimes erroneously classified as a fern. (8) The Licualia of Rumph is very common in the hills from Godlpdrá to Chittagong, and is called harmy or harhad; umbrelles are sometimes made from its leaves. (9) The hanturerwar hill is much neglected in this District, and the soil is not very suitable for its proper growth. (10) The habbi of the Machhpard hills is a species of Eleagnus, which sometimes grows as a small tree, and sometimes climbs up others to a great height, and chokes them.

Myrobalanus.—The following five trees should be considered as belonging to one genus, which might be called Myrobalanus, as the oldest name, Terminalia, used by Linnseus, is only applicable to one or two of the species. (11) The haddin (Terminalia catappa, L.) is only occasionally met with in gardens. (12) The jaind of the forests of Godlpárá grows in the woods to about three cubits in girth, and is used for making coarse articles of furniture. (13) The haurl, or Myrobalanus bellerina of Gostner, is very common both in the woods and near villages. The kernel of the fruit is eaten, and the wood is used for making boats. In the woods it is sometimes found aix feet in circumference, and with spreading branches. (14) The hilled of Godlpárá is another species of Myrobalan, which grows to the same size as the foregoing; the timber is used for boat-building and making articles of furniture. (15) The harilahi (Myrobalanus chebula of Goetner) is found in the vicinity of villages.

LAURUS.—The laurel tribe is represented by the following fifteen varieties:-(16) The tespet of Rangpur is cultivated on account of its aromatic leaves, which throughout Bengal are used as a seasoning for food. It is principally cultivated in the vicinity of the town. When fifteen years old, the tespat is fit for yielding leaves, and is then a middling-sized tree, twenty or thirty feet high. The leaves are gathered once a year in spring, exposed on mats for about fifteen days to the sun, and collected in heaps at night, but not removed from the dew. They are then made up into neat bales of about one and a half maunds' weight each, and covered with sackcloth. (17) A very fine species of Laurus, resembling the last, has been introduced into the gardens of Rangpur from Bhutan. Its aromatic quality is almost entirely confined to the bark of the root, the scent of which is said to be superior even to that of the true cinnamon. Buchanan Hamilton states that it had not in his time acquired any name in Rangpur. (18) Another very large Laurus met with by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton in the woods of Sinheswar had no local name so far as he could ascertain. This tree has very large ob-ovate leaves, several of which are collected in a circle round the joints of VOL VIL

the branches. (19) In the woods in the eastern tracts, one of the most common trees found near the streams and rivulets is a species of Laurus called hari-sankar. It is often found six feet in circumference, and is used for coarse joiner's work, such as making chests and stools. It has a strong smell of camphor. (20) A very fine species of Laurus is called kharkyá champá in some parts of the District, and champa pata in others. It grows both in the vicinity of the villages and in the woods, but does not reach more than three cubits in girth. The timber is used for making coarse furniture, etc. (21) Another species of Laurus is called bijal-ghátá, but both bark and leaves are entirely destitute of any aromatic quality. It is found in the Sinheswar forest, and lives to a great age. (22) In the Sinheswar forest tract, Dr. Buchanan Hamilton met with a very large tree, of which he was unable to ascertain the native name. belongs to the natural order of Lauri, and is either the same, or very nearly the same, as the Machilus femina of Rumph. (23) Another tree, called bijal ghátá, is also found in Rangpur. seemed to Buchanan Hamilton to be the Tomex japonica of Willdenow. In cultivated tracts it is usually found in the form of a bush. but in the hills of Goalpara it sometimes reaches a girth of six feet, and is commonly found of a size sufficient to make small canoes, or for ordinary joiner's work. (24) The bául is another species of Tomex, which grows in the woods of Goalpara to a girth of three cubits. The timber is used for making common furniture. (25) The pannujá is another Tomex of the Goalpara hills, and grows to a larger size than the foregoing. The timber is used for making articles of furniture. (26) The vagnal seems to be the Tomex sebifera of Willdenow, and is found both in the forests and surrounding the villages in the cultivated tracts. It reaches a girth of three cubits, and the timber is used for coarse joiner's work. (27) Another Tomex, the panchpetiya, is found in the Goalpara hills. The tree grows to the same size as the panmuja, and the timber is put to similar uses. (28) Very nearly allied to the foregoing is a small tree called digluti, but its wood is not utilized. (29) In the woods of Goalpara a species of wild nutmeg is found, which sometimes reaches a girth of five cubits. The natives call the tree iherard amrá, and use the timber for joiner's work. (30) The siyuli (Nyctanthes arbor tristis) is not uncommonly met with in the vicinity of villages.

VERVAINS.—Eight species are found that grow to be trees:-

(21) The bhoding of the forests of Godinara is probably the Vitex leucoxylon of Willdenow, or perhaps the Karil of Rhede. It grows only to a small size, seldom exceeding three cubits in girth. The wood is little used, except for making ploughs. This is one of the trees that best resists inundation, and it is often found on lands which are flooded for one or two months every year. (32) The angáchhuí is a species of Vitex found in the same vicinity, and grows to about the same size as the foregoing. Its wood, however, is in more request, being extremely hard, and used for making mortars for oil-mills, etc. (33) The bdbld is another species of Vitex, and grows to about the same size. The timber is little valued, and is only used for coarse joiner's work. (34) The Adaju of the Godlpara woods is a species of Callicarpa, frequently growing to a girth of six feet. The timber is used for making pestles and mortars, and for common furniture. (35) The dangkari of Rangpur is usually reared in the vicinity of villages, the leaves being used as a medicine for cattle. The leaves and flowers have a very disagreeable smell, on which account Rumph calls the plant Folium hircinum. It seldom if ever attains the size of a timber tree. (36) The budkhall is a tree found in the woods of Goalpara, similar to the foregoing. (37) The chiká gambhárí is another tree of the same character. Its wood has a strong smell, like that of the musk rat, from which animal its specific name is derived. (38) Another tree called rambhari is found, of a similar nature to the foregoing, except that it has no disagreeable smell, and does not grow so large. The timber, however, is light, tough, and durable, and is used by the natives for making chests, palanquins, platters, drums, etc.

BORAGINEZ.—Four species, namely,—(39) A species of Cordia, called dhavdli in some parts, and husiydri in others. The glutinous juice of its fruit is used by the makers of artificial flowers for glueing their work. (40) Another species of Cordia, of about the same size, is found in the Godlpara woods, but is considered of such little value that the natives have not given it a name. (41) The sapoli is a small tree found along the banks of the Mahananda river. (42) A tree called halguya in the District proper, and bhojgdchh in the Godlpara section. It is not a very common tree, but it grows to a considerable size, sometimes attaining a girth of five cubits. It is a strong wood, but not very durable, and is used for posts, beams, and chests.

BIGNONIA.—Four varieties, namely,—(43) The species of Bignonia which in the woods of Gosipara is called parijat, is styled haldi in the cultivated tracts. Although growing to a considerable size, being often found five cubits in girth, the timber is considered as only fit for firewood. The flowers expand at night and drop in the morning, when they are collected as an offering to the gods, being very sweet-smelling. (44) Nearly allied to the foregoing is a tree called alko paliya, found in the forests towards Bhután. (45) The ghanta or bell-flower tree is a still more beautiful species of Bignonia in its foliage. It is but a small tree, and is cultivated near temples as an ornament. (46) The Bignonia Indica is one of the most common trees in the District, but it never grows to a size fit for timber, and is a worthless, fetid plant.

ASCLEPIADES.—Four species, namely,—(47) The galánchá, or Flos convolutus. (48) The ádhurí of the forests of Goálpárá is a species of Nerium, described by Rhede under the name of Nelem Pala. The timber is only used by the natives for common articles of furniture, but it seems fitted for very fine work. (49) The áudhhurí belongs to the same genus, and has nearly the same qualities. (50) The chhátín (Echites scholaris) is common both in the vicinity of villages and in the forest tracts; the timber is used for making coarse furniture.

SAPOTE AND GUICANE.—These varieties are closely allied. and the following nine trees are therefore included in one class:-(51) The bákul (Mimusops elengi) is found in the gardens of this District, but is not common. (52) The pithá-gáchk of the forests of Godlpárá, either a Chrysophyllum or a Diospyros, is a very beautiful tree, growing to about three cubits in girth, and the timber is used for making furniture. The fruit is eaten, and is about the size of a small apple, but excessively sour. (524) The red of Bengal, called by botanists Embryopteris glutenifera, is also either a Chrysophyllum or a Diosperos. It is said to grow rarely in this District, and to be sometimes called hendu. The hands of the forests of Godlpara, however, seems altogether a different plant, although its fruit possesses nearly the same qualities. The fruit of the tree is not larger than a walnut, and contains only four seeds. while that of the Embryopteris is about the size of an apple, and contains eight or ten seeds. The kendu grows to about a cubit in diameter; its timber is white, and is used for making coarse furniture. (53) The tapdst is another species of the same tribe, and is cultivated in gardens on account of the fragrance of its flowers. (54) The bhaneyard, found in the Goalpara woods, has very smooth shining leaves, exactly like those of the tea tree, and bears a globular fruit. (55) The bhángrí, a tree similar to the foregoing, but bearing an oblong fruit; its leaves are used by dyers and tanners. (56) The kamba grows in the forests to a girth of about three cubits; its timber is used for making gun-stocks. (57) The hirol is a beautiful tree, which, at the time Dr. Buchanan Hamilton wrote, composed almost an entire forest in the south-east of the District, flooded every year up to the lower branches, and consequently stunted in growth, the stems not exceeding six or eight feet in length. In the woods of Goalpara, where not stunted by inundation, it grows to a diameter of three cubits, and is called hendal. (58) The magur is common both in the woods of Goalpara and in those that skirt the hills of Nepal. It grows to a circumference of three cubits, and the timber is used for making coarse furniture.

RUBIACIÆ.—Nine species, namely,—(59) The banjám grows to a girth of three cubits, and the timber is used for coarse joiner's work. (60) Mayen. This tree grows in the poorest and most parched soils, but in such situations dwindles into a large bush, in which state it is generally found on all dry barren places near villages. In the woods of Godlpárá, however, it grows to a small timber tree, four feet in circumference, and its wood is used for making coarse furniture. (61) Chhotá, or little máyen, grows nearly in the same manner as the foregoing, but differs from it in having hairy leaves. (62) Bis, or poisonous mayen, so called although the others also have deleterious qualities; it much resembles the two former trees. (63) Kuji, or small mayen. This variety of mayen does not resemble the others very much, being a handsomer plant. (64) The pir-diu is common in the lower lands of this District; it is a hardy plant, and resists the inundations. (65) The morinda is found wild in almost every wood of the District. (66) The kadambá grows in cultivated land in the vicinity of villages, and also in the forests of Goalpara; it grows to a circumference of six feet. The timber, which is of a deep yellow colour, is used for making coarse articles of furniture. The yellow flowers of this tree have little or no smell in the day, but become remarkably odorous during the night, which probably explains its botanical name of Arbor noctis given by Rumph. (67) The tell or kell kadamba is also found in Rangpur, but is not common.

CAPRIFOLIZ AND ARALIZ.-Dr. Buchanan Hamilton found in this District two trees of the order of Caprifolize, and two of the Aralize almost impossible to be distinguished from the former, and therefore given under one classification. (68) The munity is a small tree, common near village sites. (69) A species of elder, also found near villages, approaches very near to the Sambucus nigra of Europe, but its flowers are more ornamental, being of a pale red. (70) One of the most common trees of this District. both in woods and near villages, is a plant approaching to the Cussonia, which goes by several names. In the south of the District it is called sungribhángá; near Rangpur town it is called makái, and its leaves are there used as food for silk-worms. In the east part of the District it is called karnáphul, because its flowers resemble in shape a kind of native ear-ring. There is another tree called makdi in the District, which has no sort of affinity with this, belonging to the order of Meliæ (No. 97). (71) The unjalá of the Hortus Malabaricus is found in the low-lying eastern parts of this District.

SAPINDI.—Two species (72 and 73), but the natives whom Dr. Buchanan Hamilton consulted could give no local name for either of the trees or for their fruit.

GUTTIFERÆ.—Five species, namely,—(74) The dengphal is commonly met with in gardens; the fruit is eaten. (75) In the woods in the eastern part of the District, a species of Garunia called kanyakuii or kawa is not uncommon. It grows to about three cubits in diameter; its fruit is eaten, and although very acid, has exactly the flavour of the mangosteen. The timber is used for joiner's work. (76) The sapsapiya is a tree resembling the foregoing, and grows in the same localities; the fruit, which is about the size of a walnut, is sweeter and more palatable than the former, but it has not so much of the mangosteen flavour. (77) Another tree nearly related to the mangosteen, and called tháikal, seems originally to have been confined to Assam, but it has now spread through the gardens of most parts of the District. The natives are very fond of the fruit, which is round, and from three to four inches in circumference. It is too acid for being used raw, but is cut into slices and dried, and used as an acid seasoning. It is also made into pickles and sweetmeats. (78) The nageswar (Mesua ferrea) is very common in the vicinity of villages, and is also found in some of the woods. It is an exceedingly ornamental tree, and frequently attains to a good size, say forty or fifty feet in height and four feet in girth.

Nearly allied to the above five plants is a class of trees of which many varieties are found in India, such as the Vaterias, Vaticas, Dipterospermums, Shoreas, and Dammaras of Rumph. They are remarkably ornamental, many of them produce valuable timber, and all abound with resin. The following two only are found in this District:-(79) The sall or gujáli (Shorea robusta) is the most valuable tree in the District, and grows to a very large size. The woodmen of Godlpara never collect the resin; but in the woods of Battris-hazari the foresters gather it from the trees which they cut. to be burned as an offering to the gods; it is never sold. In the northern forests the tree is said to be found ten cubits round: and it is said that six cubits is not an unusual size. Trees of this size are often found in the eastern tracts of the District. (80) A species of Vatica is found in the hilly tracts. In this District it is called kanak changpa, a name, however, which is also given to a totally different plant (No. 102). When in flower, this is a remarkably fine tree, and perfumes the whole vicinity.

CITRUS.—Eight species are mentioned by Dr. Buchanan Hamil-At the time when he wrote, the orange was not cultivated in Rangpur, except in the gardens of the European residents, and the same was nearly the case with the shaddock. The trees of the genus Citrus are usually called jamir in Rangpur, although the more ordinary name, nebu, is also generally known. The greater part of them grow nearly wild in the vicinity of villages. (81) The variety most usually called jumir without any addition has an oval fruit about twelve inches in circumference, with a cavity round the footstalk, and at the top a protuberance like that of a lemon. It has a smooth, thin rind, with nearly the smell of the citron, but is much more juicy, and approaches nearest to the lemon. The fruit ripens in spring. (82) The kangla jamir has an oval fruit, rounded at both ends, and about the size of a goose's egg. The rind is of a moderate thickness, and the juice copious and of a fine flavour. The fruit ripens in the cold season. (83) The gangrá jamir is also common; the fruit ripens in autumn. (84) The kagji is also found in Rangpur; it continues in season from the middle of the rains until the middle of the cold-weather months. The other trees of this species are (85) the páti jamír, (86) the páni jamír, (87) the kathel, and (88) the bel.

Melle.—Ten species, namely,—(89) One species, with very minute flowers, is common near Goalpara, but has no local name, nor is it applied to any use. (90) The nim (Melia azadirachta) is very rarely met with in the District. (91) The gora nim (Melia azadirach), on the contrary, is very common in every part of the north-west of Rangpur. It is a very ornamental tree, but is applied to no use, except that its odorous and elegant flowers are presented in offering to the gods. (92) The rasuniá pomá, so called from its having a smell resembling garlic, grows to a girth of five cubits, and is used for making canoes. (93) Another tree which grows on the hills is called by the same name, but is of a different species, and has a red wood. Its leaves are hairy, while that of the former are smooth. (94) Another tree of the same genus is called gabor phongoviá from its abominable stench; it does not grow to such a size as the foregoing, but is used for making canoes. (95) The amari grows to a girth of five cubits, and is used for making canoes and chests. (96) The bard gatadhar is another plant of the same genus, which grows in the forests of Goálpárá to a circumference of six feet: the timber is used for joiner's work. Another tree is also called galadhar, but it has no resemblance to this. (97) A tree called pithrás in Dinájpur is sometimes called by the same name in Rangpur, and sometimes makái; in Goálpárá it is called also banár timd. (98) The tun, or Cedrella, grows in the forests to a girth of five cubits, and is considered by the natives to be the best timber for making furniture which they possess.

MALRACEÆ.—Six species, namely,—(99) One of the largest, most beautiful, and valuable timber trees of this District is a species of Gordonia, called by the woodmen of Goálpárá, makri sál. It grows in abundance on the hills of Mechhpárá. The tree bears a white sweet-smelling flower. The timber is used for making canoes and chests. (100) Dr. Buchanan Hamilton observed in the Goálpárá woods a very large and beautiful tree belonging to a genus which Roxburgh has named after Colonel Kyd, the founder of the Botanical Gardens of Calcutta, but of which his native guides could not give him the local name. (101) The same was the case with another smaller tree of the same genus. (102) The kanak changpá (Pterospermum suberifolium). (103) The simul is common in Rangpur, and is one of those species which thrive best on inundated land.

In the more cultivated parts of the District, the fishermen make canoes of this tree; they do not last more than one year, but are remarkably buoyant, and are easily wrought. (104) The odld or hatchands is a very common tree, which grows to a girth of five cubits. The bark is used for making ropes, and the timber for making canoes.

MAGNOLIZ.—Six species, namely,—(105) The champa (Michelia) is a favourite tree in gardens and about villages, on account of its sweet-smelling flowers. (106) Another tree of the same genus is called dudh champá. It is a finer tree than the foregoing, but the scent of the flowers is not so overpowering. (107) The chaltá is very common in the woods of Goálpárá, and is also planted in the vicinity of villages; in the forests it reaches a girth of six feet. (108) The dáiní aksí, found in the Goálpárá forests and towards Nepál, where it is called challi, is a fine large spreading tree, six feet in girth, and appears to be one of the most valuable timber trees in the District. The wood is used for making canoes, being thought inferior only to the sál. (109) A tree called akchu is similar to the foregoing; it grows to the same size, and the wood is used for joiner's work. (110) A species of achmá, reared as an ornament in gardens.

ANANZ.—Three varieties, namely,—(111) The bandar kald is probably the Uvaria subcrosa of Willdenow, although it does not entirely agree with his account. It is found in the woods of Goálpárá, where it grows to about three cubits in girth, and is used for beams, posts, and planks. The two other species of Ananze found in Rangpur are the (112) atá and (113) lond, both described by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton in his Account of Dinájpur.

TILIACIE.—Six species, namely,—(114) The baingdehhi in hard clay lands is a mere bush, but in fertile soil it becomes a middling-sized tree. (115) The jalphi. (116) The rudrhhhi is common in Rangpur. The fruit is of a fine deep-blue colour, but is never eaten; the stone, which is globular, is deeply wrinkled as if cut by hand, and is used for beads. The tree grows to a middling size, and has remarkably brittle branches. (117) The chakra suld often grows to five cubits in girth. The wood is considered to be of good quality, and is used for making mortars, chests, and for similar purposes. (118) Another variety of this order, growing to the size of a fine tree, was found in the Sinheswar woods, but Dr. Buchanan Hamilton was unable to ascertain its native name.

ONAGRÆ.—Two species, namely,—(119) In the vicinity of the villages in the north-west of the District, Dr. Buchanan Hamilton found a large tree, of which he was unable to ascertain the native name. The fruit almost exactly resembles the Pygieum of Gœrtner. (120) The bankan tháli is one of the most common village trees in the vicinity of Rangpur town.

Myrti.—Nine species, namely,—(121) A fine tree called chakrá sál is found in the Mechhpárá woods. The same tree is found in Chittagong, where it is called either duya bhángá or banar holá. (122) The jarul (Flos regina), which derives its botanical name from the beauty of its flowers, is much sought after for boat-building. (123) The sidd, a tree similar to the foregoing, is common in the Godlpara woods, where it grows to six feet in girth; also used for making hoats. The tree is also met with in the cultivated parts of the District, where it is called ghagrá. (124) The gayabá is principally found in the neighbourhood of old ruins; its bark is sometimes used by tanners. (125) The jam is one of the most common trees met with, growing near almost every village and in every wood. (126) The gadha jum, nearly allied to the foregoing, is found principally in the Godipara woods. It grows to a girth of about six feet; the timber is cut into planks, but is not considered by the natives to be of good quality. (127) Another variety, called sál jám, occurs in the same woods, and although it does not grow to such a large size as the foregoing, is more used for planks, posts, etc. (128) Another species, found in the eastern parts of the District, is the bhadrá iám, which grows like the others. (129) The lodh is found in the north-western parts of Rangpur; the leaves are used by tanners.

I.EGUMINOS.E. — This order is represented in this District by twenty-three different trees,—(130) The guyá báblá is found in Rangpur, but is a rare plant. (131) The bhájgáchh is a mimosa met with in the woods of Goálpárá; but the same name is also applied to a totally different plant. In the western parts of Rangpur this tree is called khauyá taki. (132) The sirish is also a mimosa, and grows wild near villages. (133) The karui of the Goálpárá woods grows to a girth of five cubits, and its timber is said to make good planks. (134) The jati kardi grows in great abundance in the Mechhpárá hills, with a very losty but not straight trunk. In the cultivated tracts, where it is sometimes found, it is called sirish, a name also given to a species just mentioned (No. 132). (135) A small mimosa is called júl gúb in the forest tracts,

and tatrásimá in the cultivated parts; fishermen steep their nets in a decoction of its bark, which is probably a strong tan. (136) In the southern parts of the District, where the soil is dry, one of the most common small trees, which sometimes degenerates into a bush, is called in some parts kauri, and in others ghord kuchi. (137) The tamarind is exceedingly rare in this District, and is chiefly confined to the woods near Panga. (138) The son-tilu (Cassia fistula) resembles oak, and is used for making ploughs. (139) The raktalchandan (Adenanthera pavonina) is a common tree in the vicinity of villages, and grows to a considerable size. (140) Lal kanschain and (141) swet-kangchán are common in Rangpur. (142) Another kangchán is also met with, similar to the foregoing, except that the flowers are white. (143) The bhakuri of the forests of Godpard grows to about three cubits in circumference, and is used for making furniture. (144) The tukrá and (145) the lakpásh are met with. (146) Palitá madar; very rare. (147) Palis (Butca frondosa) is common in the woods, and grows to a good size; the timber is used for making coarse furniture. (148) The mom-siti grows to a considerable size in the Goalpara forests, and the timber is used for making coarse furniture. (149) A similar tree to the above, but of a smaller size, of which Dr. Buchanan Hamilton was unable to ascertain the native name. (150) The sisu is a tree nearly related to the two former. It is only found in Rangpur in the low ranges bordering on Nepál and Bhután, near the banks of rivers and streams. Its timber is of excellent quality, and makes good furniture. It does not grow to a larger girth than three and a half cubits. (151) The makri gilá (Dalbergia arborea) and (152) asak (Jonesia) are found in Rangpur District.

TEREBINTACE.E.—Eleven species, as follows:—(153) The bheld is commonly met with in the woods; the timber is used for making chests and couches. (154) The ám-gáchh or mango tree does not flourish well in Rangpur, and the fruit is very indifferent. (155) The jiyol, called also jiyá and kalájiyá, is frequently met with in the hills near Goálpárá. (156) The khágá is a middling-sized tree, met with in the woods in the northern part of the District. (157) The niyár, found in the Goálpárá woods, grows to a girth of five cubits, and has a strong resinous smell. The timber is excellent for making furniture. (158) The jiyá kohi of the Goálpárá woods has a strong affinity to the above; the timber is valuable, and is used for boatbuilding. (159) The amrá (Spondias amara) grows both in the

woods and near villages. The tree attains a good size, but the timber is of little value. (160) The hdl-phali is one of the most common trees found in the woods of the eastern parts of the District. The tree grows to a girth of about three cubits, and the timber is used for making stools and light articles of furniture. (161) The bajarnandi is a good-sized tree, nearly related to the above. The fruit has a warm resinous taste, and is used by the natives as medicine. (162) Another tree, nearly related to the two just named, is the chhots or small galddhdr, found in the woods of Goálpárá, which has no affinity to the bard or great galddhdr mentioned previously (No. 96). (163) The uriyd-dm is nearly allied to the last named; it grows to three feet in girth, and is used for making coarse articles of furniture.

RHAMNI.—Seven species, namely,—(164) The bhes or mej of Goalpara; a good-sized tree, the timber of which is used for making (165) The silá pomá of Goálpárá grows to a coarse furniture. large-sized tree five cubits in circumference, and is considered very valuable for furniture. (166) A species of Ilex, growing to a middling size, of which Dr. Buchanan Hamilton was unable to ascertain the native name. (167) The bayer badariká (Jujuba) is common in every part of the District, and is a very hardy plant. It resists both the sterility of sandy soil and the floods of the Brahmaputra. There are two varieties of this tree. One has an oblong fruit and a succulent covering nearly of the consistence of an apple. The other has a round fruit, more mealy than the former, and much used by the natives as a seasoning to their food. (168) The Zizyphus xylocarpus is found in the clayey lands in the south-west of the District. (169) The kamranga (Averrhoa carambola) and (170) the hariphal (Cicca) are met with in the cultivated tracts.

EUPHORBIE.—Nineteen species, namely,—(171) The amld (Emblica), a very common tree both near villages and in forests. It is especially abundant on the skirts of forests in a dry soil, where there are many reeds; for although a small tree, it resists fire better than any other, and these reeds are burned every spring. It is surprising, indeed, how anything should be able to endure the flame that arises from a thicket of reeds from eight to twelve feet high. The trees, of course, are entirely stripped of their leaves; but the amld, sdl, and kambá seem to suffer little other injury, and in less than a week afterwards break into flower. The amld never exceeds three cubits in girth, and although considered a poor wood, is used for planks and stools. (172) The latká is very common both in

the villages and in the eastern forests. (173) The bradicia (Bradleia sinica of Goertner) is also found in Rangpur. (174) The hankene-thall is common both in the villages and forests; in the Godipárá woods the tree is called Ashi. The timber is used for making chests and stools. (175) A tree similar to the above, called in some parts kosi, and in others karchimala, is frequently met with. (176) Another species (Clutes retuse of Linnæus) is sometimes called lat-koki, but at Goálpárá is called káhál. The pulp of the berries is eaten by children. (177) The akrot (Aleurites Moluccana of Willdenow) is a very ornamental plant, and usually found near temples, but it is very rare in this District. (178) The dakditi of Rangour is a still more ornamental, although a smaller tree than the above, (179) The tree called sindur in Dinajpur is here called indifferently kumillá, ajkorá, or ghátí. The tree grows almost everywhere; and old women are employed to collect the fruit, which is covered with a red dust used in dyeing. The fruit is first dried, and then rubbed on a bamboo sieve until all the dust has passed through. (180) The ghull is a tree very nearly allied to the foregoing. (181) The dudh or dudhird is found here, and used for making beads by the people of Malang. (182) A small tree called hanibish, very nearly allied to the above. (183) The jamalgata (Croton tiglium) closely resembles the last-named tree; the seed of the plant is used medicinally as a purgative. (184) The tree called mukundá when found growing in hedges, is called parákupi when growing in the forests, where it attains a girth of five feet. The timber is used for making coarse furniture. (185) The kalikadam of Goalpara is a tree of the same tribe as the above; as also (186) a large tree called dhakdheki at Patgram, where it is found in the vicinity of villages. (187) Another large tree, strongly resembling the above, of which Dr. Buchanan Hamilton was unable to ascertain the native name. (188) The telijara is common in the neighbourhood of villages in Rangpur. (189) The sonaphal is the name of the male variety of a tree found in the District, of which the name of the female tree is nadá-iám.

URTICE.—Excluding creeping and climbing species, twenty-one varieties of this natural order are found in Rangpur District which grow up into trees:—(190) The common fig grows among the rocks in the hills near Goálpárá. It is a very ornamental plant, but has not acquired any local name from the natives. The figs are in pairs, and adhere close to the branches. (191) The banyan tree

(Ficus Bengalensis) is fully described by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton in his Account of Dinajpur. In Rangpur it is not so common, nor does it grow to be so fine a tree. (192) The dhap is one of the most common branch-rooting figs; it may be at once known by its smooth leaves and cylindrical fruit, while that of the banyan tree is globular. The dháp is almost as elegant as the banyan, and is one of the trees on which the lac insect is reared. Its branches spread lower and are more horizontal than those of Ficus Bengalensis, and its stem is smaller. (193) Another tree similar to the foregoing is also called dhap by the natives, but the figs are of a cylindrical shape. This tree is not less beautiful than the two just mentioned. (194) Another very elegant fig tree, remarkable for the slenderness of its branches and the lightness of its foliage, was met with by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, who does not, however, give the native name. The fruit of this tree adheres to the branches. (195) Nearly related to the preceding is the natabarbat of Goalpara. The figs are small, of the size of a nutmeg, and adhere to short stalks. (196) In the eastern parts of the District another branch-rooting fig is found, said to be the same as the aksha bat or sacred tree of Gaya. It is a rigid plant like the common banyan tree, and in spring has a remarkably handsome appearance, the buds being of a shining gold colour; on which account the tree is here most commonly called subarná bat. In other parts it is also called ram barga. (197) The pipal (Ficus religiosa) is rare in this District. (198) The nakur or pakur is used for rearing the lac insect. (199) Another tree, also called nakur, is rare in Rangpur; as also (200) is the naksá. (201) A much more common fig tree is the achin or harisankar. It grows to be a very stately tree, like the pipal, and in spring has a fine appearance, from its large veined buds, on which account it has been called Figus venosa. (202) Another tree of the same kind has obtained no name from the natives. It attains a good size, and, like all the other sorts, frequently takes root on other trees and overpowers them. (203 and 204) Two other varieties of figs, of which the native names are not given. The first grows erect, and has small figs growing in pairs at each leaf: the second is rather an immense climber than a tree. (205. 206, and 207) Three other varieties of fig trees, all resembling each other, and called respectively jug-dumar, dumar, and kuji-dumar. The other species of figs are (208) the rakhal Mini of Godlpárá. (200) the kusuri, and two others (210 and 211) of which the

native names are not given. (212) The jack tree (Artocarpus integrifolia), next to the bamboo and areca, is the most important tree in the plantations of Rangpur; and in 1800 Dr. Buchanan Hamilton estimated that there were at least half a million of these trees in bearing. (213) The dheyd is commonly met with in the neighbourhood of villages. (214) The chámá or kangtali chámá, an Artocarpus, is, according to Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, the glory of the forests in the east of the District. It is a very fine tree, sometimes growing to the circumference of six cubits. The best canoes in this District are made from this tree; they are said to be much more valuable than those made of sal, being more durable. and much more buoyant. (215) In the Goalpara woods, Dr. Buchanan Hamilton found a middling-sized tree, evidently a Papyrus, for which the natives had no name. (216) A small thorny tree called biskangta (Cudranus Amboinensis of Rumph) is common in Rangpur, and approaches very near to the Papyri. (217) The sard or scord, nearly allied to the Morus, is found in the District. It will grow on the poorest lands, but is then stunted. In the woods of Goalpara it is found three cubits in circumference. (218 and 219) Two kinds of the real Morus Indica are found in Rangpur. The first is the tut (Morus japonica of Rumph), which never grows to be a tree, but always remains a bush. It is reared simply for feeding silk-worms, the fruit being very small, and scarcely worth eating. The second kind is the Morus Macassariensis of Rumph, and grows to be a small tree; it is reared for its fruit. the western parts of Rangpur the lac insect is also raised on this tree.

AMENTACIÆ.—Seven species, namely,—(220) The jigd or jibni (Celtis orientalis) is common in the cultivated parts of the District. In the Mechhpárá hills it is called jan-fung; and a kind of coarse cloth is made out of its inner bark, and worn by the hill people. (221) A species of willow is common in the District, and grows to a small tree. (222) In the Mechhpárá hills is found a tree approaching nearly to the Carpinus or hornbeam of England. The following are four species of oak belonging to this natural order:—(223) Kangtá singur. This tree does not grow to more than three feet in circumference; its timber is used for making canoes. (224) The gol singur grows to a much larger size than the above; it is also used for boat-making. (225) The nikárí grows to five feet in circumference; the timber is used for making canoes and articles of furniture. (226) The timá is an oak which does not grow larger

than three cubits in circumference; timber used for making common furniture.

ANTIDESMÆ.—Four species, namely,—(227) Heloch or bará (great) heloch, found near villages, but only of a small size; in the hills, however, it is sometimes met with six feet in circumference. (228) The kuji or little heloch differs very slightly from the former. (229) A. small tree, called amri near Rangpur, and abutenga at Goálpárá. (230) Another species called adhara.

Bamboos.—The principal varieties of bamboos are the following:
—(231) bará báns, (232) maklá báns, (233) jautá báns, (234) beru báns, (235) kangkháyá báns, and (236) tarái báns.

MISCELLANEOUS TREES.—The following trees are also met with. but were not classified by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton according to scientific order, on the ground that botanists were divided in opinion where they should be placed:—(237) The agar or sangchi of this District is a tree of considerable celebrity. It is common in the low lands of Assam, and not rare in the lower Goalpara hills. In Assam the bark of this tree forms the material on which people write. the Gáro mountains this wood acquires very different qualities: certain masses in the heart of the tree become dark-coloured, and are highly impregnated with an odorous oil called agar. Buchanan Hamilton mentions that the Mughul court at Dehli, in its palmy days, was supplied with this oil by a Garo chief, who is said to have received a deed of protection, on condition of paying a tribute of a certain quantity, together with some rare birds. (238) The sujiná is a hardy plant, of which the leaves are eaten as a vegetable, the unripe fruit being also used in cookery, and the roots and seeds as medicine. (239) The gand-sari of Godlpárá grows to a circumference of five cubits. The wood, which has a strong smell of anisced, is used for making canoes and chests. (240) The daphari is a small tree, used for making coarse furniture. (241) The habla, (242) banglá, and (243) phutkí are all trees of Goálpárá of which the timber is used for making coarse articles of furniture. (244) The hárá of Goálpárá, a tree nearly approaching to an oak, is found six feet in girth, and is used for making canoes. (245) The lill pativa, (246) bard patival, and (247) bhelli are all used for boat-making. (248) The bin kipás should from its name be a species of cotton, but Dr. Buchanan Hamilton thinks it is more probably an Hibiscus. It grows to a girth of six feet, and is used for making coarse furniture.

OTHER VEGETABLE JUNGLE PRODUCTS.—Canes and reeds abound throughout the District. The canes are of inferior quality, the principal being the garál bet (the best), the júli bet, and the harkate bet. The reeds are of more importance. The following list of them is condensed from Dr. Buchanan Hamilton's Ms. Report on Rangpur:-(1) The largest, called bard or large khayra, is often higher than a man's head when riding on an elephant. The full-grown stems are about an inch and a half in diameter, and from fifteen to eighteen feet in length. They are used for the framework of the huts in the localities where they grow, but for this purpose are very inferior to bamboo. (2) The ldl or red khagra is a much smaller reed than the last, and varies in size from the thickness of a goose quill to that of the little finger. The young leaves of all varieties of reeds are eaten by elephants. buffaloes, cows, and horses; but those of the hil khagra are esteemed the best. It thrives remarkably on the low banks of the Brahmaputra; and during the annual inundations, when the leaves are in season, the villagers go out in boats and cut them as fodder for the cattle, which at this time of the year are pent up in huts. (3) Sadd chal or sádá khagra is a larger reed than the last, and has a green stem; it is used for making the walls of houses. These three varieties of reeds all grow on low inundated land, especially on newly-formed sandy tracts near rivers. (4) Báta reeds are divided into two varieties, red and white; used for making fences and also the walls of huts. The reed is from nine to ten feet in length, and about a finger's thickness. (5) The narangá bar is a reed not thicker than a man's little finger; it grows on higher lands than those above mentioned, and is often used for making fences round (6) The maneri kajúyí of Goálpárá is a saccharine reed growing on the sandy banks of the Brahmaputra. In spring it ends out long shoots, which creep along the surface of the ground and strike out roots from their joints; they then send up leaves, and towards the end of the inundation push forth long slender reeds. The shoots begin to form between the 10th of February and the 10th f March, and from the middle of May to the middle of July are ollected by the cattle tenders, for the purpose of extracting the ugar. The pith of these shoots contains much saccharine juice. 'he shoots are cut into pieces, and then beaten in a wooden mortar 2 a kind of pulp. This is put into an earthen pot with a small hole the bottom, which is placed on the mouth of another pot that lands over a fire. The saccharine matter is washed into the lower VOL. VII.

pot by pouring some water on the beaten mass, and then boiled to the thickness of new honey, which it nearly resembles in colour. (7) Another similar plant, from which saccharine juice is extracted. is called kháieri kajáví, and grows in a like manner. The extract from this is of a very black colour, and of inferior quality. (8 and 9) Two other species of reed, nearly approaching to No. 6, are called bará (great) kasi and chhotá (little) kasi. The leaves are remarkably tough, and are used as ropes for tying fences and the framework of houses; sometimes also as thatch by the poor. (10 and 11) The bará ulu and chhotá ulu are two other varieties of reeds: the leaves. which are much used for thatching purposes, are very long and durable. (12) The reed called sar is found in this District, and is used for making torches; it is also sometimes employed for the walls of houses, but does not last. The reed is about the thickness of a man's finger, and from nine to ten feet long. (13) The nal reed grows to the size of a bamboo, but it is neither so hard nor so strong. It is split and made up into mats. (14) The anal is a similar reed to the above, but of a much smaller size. (15) The kusá is a very scarce grass in this District, and is not applied to any use. (16) The tangá is a very common reed or high grass, but is not applied to any useful purpose. (17) The birnd is common near rivers in the cultivated parts of the country; the leaves are used by the poor for thatch, and the stems for making hurdles. (18) The byand is applied to nearly the same uses as the foregoing. (19) The nagarmuthd is found, but is not put to much use. Except the ulu thatching reeds, few of the reeds or grasses in this District pay any rent. All the tenants on an estate are usually allowed to cut whatever reeds they wish. But in some parts, where the quantity is great, strangers come from a distance to cut the reeds, and usually pay a trifling sum for each sickle or person employed. In the cultivated parts of the District, many plants grow wild, or nearly so, of which the fruits, seeds, or roots are used as articles of food. Most of these have been already enumerated in the list of trees given in the foregoing pages.

Animal Jungle Products.—Honey, beeswax, and shell lime are the principal animal jungle products of Rangpur. Beeswax and honey are abundant in the south of the District. There are three seasons for collecting the honey, namely, when the mustard plant has flowered, in the beginning of the cold season; when the ndgeswar trees flower, at the end of spring; and about the middle

of July, after the Convolvuli have flowered. A class of people called jugis collect a large quantity of shells, for the purpose of converting them into lime by burning. This lime is much used by the people, who chew it with pán leaves and betel-nut; it is also used in the manufacture of indigo. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton states that the best lime is prepared from two species of mussel (Mytilus), which greatly resemble the Anatinus common in the rivers of England, but are much smaller in size. The second quality of lime is prepared from a kind of snail called simuk, almost round, and about two inches in diameter. The worst lime, which is never eaten, is made from a smaller conical snail about an inch long.

FERÆ NATURÆ.—The following account of the feræ naturæ of the Rangpur District is for the most part condensed from Dr. Buchanan Hamilton's very valuable Ms. Report, supplemented by later information furnished in 1871 by the Collector of the District. As explained when quoting Dr. Buchanan Hamilton's list of trees, it must be remembered that his statements refer to a very much larger area than the present District. Some of the animals mentioned in the following list may not be found at all, or only very rarely, in Rangpur at the present day; and the modes of hunting described may now be obsolete.

WILD ANIMALS .- Tigers and leopards appear to be more numerous now than in former years. Buchanan Hamilton states that when he was in the District they were very rarely seen, and that in Battrishazári, one of the tracts then most exposed to their depredations, one man might be killed every two or three years, and about fifteen to twenty head of cattle annually. In 1871 the Collector reported to me that these animals were numerous in many parts of the District, especially in the chars or sandy islands of the Brahmaputra. Wild buffalo are numerous, especially in tracts where deer are found. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton states that many of these animals are caught in pitfalls by the villagers, who also capture the young ones alive, especially in the rainy season, when the inundation confines the herds to a few high places. On such occasions the people in their canoes attack a herd with spears, and after having killed or dispersed the old ones, are often able to secure some of the young. The buffalo is also sometimes hunted for the sake of the horns and skin. The hunters take an advance of money from a trader. Two or three men usually go together, and, without attempting to conceal themselves, shoot the

buffalo with poisoned arrows. The slightest wound proves fatal in a few hours, during which time the hunters watch the animal, and avoid a near approach until he is dead. The total number of skins procured is, however, very inconsiderable. The common black bear of India is found, but not very abundantly. Many exist in the Sinheswar forest, and occasionally kill a person who may have wandered near them. They eat mango, jack, and plantain trees, as well as honey, but do no harm to the crops or herds. In the early years of the century, elephants were numerous throughout the eastern and north-western divisions of Rangpur, now separated from the District, but they scarcely ever penetrated into the more settled parts; in the outlying tracts, however, they were very destructive to the grain crops. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton states that when the rice approaches maturity, the cultivators in the parts which elephants frequent have to keep a watch on the crop every night. Stages are erected on posts twelve or fourteen feet high; on one side of the stage a small shed is creeted for the watchmen, who keep watch in pairs, one man feeding a fire which is kept constantly burning in the open part of the stage, while the other sleeps. the event of elephants, deer, or hogs coming to the field, the sleeper is roused, and both men unite in attempting to frighten away the intruders by shouting and beating drums. They never attack the animals. The sal forests seem to be the principal haunts of the elephants during the rainy months; in the dry season they frequent the reed thickets. In travelling from one place to another, elephants usually follow a regular path made by themselves, which soon becomes well beaten and smooth. Several landholders keep tame female elephants as a decoy for capturing wild ones. The decoy elephant is provided with a long rope, which is fastened to its girdle and coiled on its back. At the end of the rope is a running noose, which the rider of the decoy female elephant throws round the neck of the wild one. As soon as the noose is thrown, the decoy walks away, and the noose is drawn tight, until the unfortunate prisoner is nearly strangled. The villagers then attach ropes to his legs, and fasten him to a stout tree until he becomes somewhat tame. The elephants caught in this manner are usually small, seldom more than six and a half feet high, and a larger proportion of them die than of those captured by being surrounded with a stout stockade (khade). In Mechhpárá and Hawaraghat elephants are occasionally caught in pitfalls (dhar). These are dug in the paths

frequented by the elephants, and carefully covered over with branches and earth. A watch is kept near, and when an elephant has been trapped, the watchers come up with lighted torches and make as much noise as possible in order to drive away the herd, who would otherwise help their companion to escape. As soon as the herd is frightened off, ropes are made fast to the captive and tied to trees. One side of the pit is then dug away, so as to make a slope, and enable the animal to come out of the trap. This, again, is a bad method of catching elephants, for the animals are frequently so much injured by the fall that they never recover. Elephants are also sometimes hunted and killed for the sake of the ivory. Rhinoceros are frequently met with in the forests and extensive reed thickets, especially in the eastern tracts which now form the Goalpara District. They are perfectly harmless animals, and do no injury either to man or crops. Many persons make a profession of hunting them for the sake of the horn and skin. The horn is in great request, being considered to possess peculiar medicinal virtues; it is also utilized for making bracelets and cups used in the religious ceremonies of the Hindus. The skin is used for making targets and shields. The loss of life from wild beasts (almost solely caused by tigers and leopards) for the three years ending 1868-60 is returned by the police as follows:—1866-67, 49; 1867-68, 35; 1868-69, 38: annual average for the three years, 41. The amount paid in the shape of Government rewards for the destruction of wild beasts in the same three years is returned as follows:-1866-67. Rs. 24. 2. 0, or £2, 8s. 3d., paid for the destruction of t tiger and o leonards; in 1866-67, Rs. 141. 10. 8, or £14, 39. 4d., for 16 tigers and 1 leopard; and in 1868-69, Rs. 17. 8. 0, or £1, 158. od., for 1 tiger and 5 leopards.

The other Varieties of Mammalia are the following:—Wild hogs are met with in nearly every part of the District; but in the eastern and north-western tracts, in the Sinheswar forest, and the Pangá forests they are very troublesome and destructive. In this part of the country the Hindu cultivators capture the wild hog in nets, and the flesh is considered as pure food. No attempt is made to extirpate or reduce the number of these animals, which are only occasionally killed for the sake of the flesh. Deer of many kinds are very numerous and destructive to the crops, particularly in the eastern and north-western tracts. The most common variety of deer is called either gaoj or bhaldngs. The other kinds are the spotted

deer (bará khatiyá), hog-deer (khatiyá), ribbed-faced deer (máyá), common antelope, and musk deer. No class of people make a profession of hunting the deer, nor are their skins in any request. Many cultivators, however, employ their leisure time in killing them for the sake of the food, which is eaten either when freshly killed or after having been dried by smoke. The usual method of catching the deer is by pitfalls, traps, or nets. Occasionally a man goes out at night with a lantern tied to his head; the deer are attracted by the light, and shot by arrows. In the Mechhpara forest two kinds of ape are met with, both called huluk by the natives, one of a grey colour, and the other black with broad white eyebrows; both kinds have the same manners, shape, and cry. The huluks live in large herds, are exceedingly noisy, but very shy. In the dry season, when water is scarce, and they are under the necessity of leaving the woods to procure drink, they are often captured by taking advantage of their awkward walk, which is always erect. The old ones when caught are very intractable, and seldom live long, but the young ones are readily tamed. Spiders and grasshoppers are their favourite food, but they also cat fish, wild fruit, and leaves. The short-tailed monkey, called markut by the natives, is found in the woods. The langur or long-tailed monkey is also common. Both these species of monkeys live entirely on vegetables, and are very destructive to the fields and gardens. The Lemur tardigradus is sometimes but rarely caught by the people of Mechhpárá, where it is called the lajáwati bandar or bashful monkey. It is an animal of prey, and feeds chiefly on small birds, which it catches at night, at which time it is very active. Its manners in some respects resemble those of a bat; it is dazzled by glare, and takes its rest in the day-time, hanging from the branch of a tree, much as the large bats of India do. Foxes and jackals are numerous in every part of Rangpur District, and hyænas are sometimes met with. Porcupines are found, but are not very numerous; they are sometimes captured for food. Hares are very abundant all over the District. Otters are rather common, and in the northern parts of the District a few skins are taken for the Bhutan market, but otter-hunting is not much practised. A few hunters from Dacca and some of the Ganrar caste frequent the banks of the Brahmaputra, and kill otters for the Dacca market. They first catch a living young otter, procurable between the middle of November and the middle of December. The two following months form the hunting season. The huntsman seeks out

a place frequented by otters, where he ties the young otter to a bush or reed, and conceals himself close at hand. Its cries soon bring the old otters, which are thereupon killed with a harpoon. otter is about three and a half feet in length from the snout to the end of the tail. Porpoises are numerous in the Brahmaputra. They are killed for the sake of the oil by a class of fishermen called Ganrárs. According to these fishermen, the porpoise brings forth her young between the 11th February and the 11th April, bearing only one at a time. They do not give suck for more than a month. by which time the teeth of the young have grown, and they are able to provide for themselves. Porpoises are caught at all seasons of the year, but principally between the middle of January and the middle of March. The fishermen, in a fast-rowing boat, watch when the animals come up to breathe, and strike them with a harpoon having three slender barbed prongs of iron about a foot in length. After the entrails and bones have been thrown away, the body of the animal is cut into pieces, which are boiled in an earthen pot for about an hour and a half. The oil is then separated from the flesh by straining through sackcloth. One porpoise gives from ten to fifteen sers of oil, or from about twenty to thirty pounds avoirdupois.

BIRDS.—As a rule, the birds of Rangpur District are not made to serve any useful purpose either as food or for trading purposes. Birds belonging to the genera of the pigeon, partridge, quail, peacock, pheasant, bustard, bittern, plover, snipe, and duck, in great variety and many of them very choice eating, are found in abundance. These, however, are not the birds most in request among the natives, who, when they eat any wild bird, which is very seldom, prefer small herons, shags, and sparrows to all others. The jungle fowl (Phasianus gallus) is very common in the woods, but is such an unclean feeder as to be unendurable as food. Some members of two low classes called Naliyas and Telingas catch birds with a rod, the end of which is besmeared with birdlime. Some of these birds, chiefly parakeets, are tamed and sold; but the greater part are eaten by the men who catch them, who but seldom are able to find a purchaser for their game. The cultivators catch many young mainds (Gracula religiosa), pharidis (Poitacus gingianus Il.), and tuis or the common parakeet. The bhimrij (Lanius Malabaricus), which sings with a fine mellow voice like that of a bullfinch, but louder, is also frequently procured. These birds are eagerly bought up by boatmen from the southern Districts. The parakeet and baudyi (Loxia typhina) are the cultivators' great enemies, and in some tracts a continual watch has to be kept in order to scare them away. The kdim, a bird nearly approaching to the Galinula porphyrio, is very numerous in the ditches and ponds, and destroys a great quantity of grain. Large flocks of a crane called kalang and of another called saras (Ardea antigone) frequent Rangpur District in winter, and also consume the rice. These birds come from the north at the beginning of the cold season, and retire when the heats commence. In the dry season the pelican (Pelicanus Phillipensis) is very common on the sands of the Brahmaputra; in the rainy months it is said to frequent the Gáro mountains, where it breeds.

REPTILES are abundant in Rangpur District. Near the banks of the Brahmaputra, both river turtle and tortoises are much used in the diet of the natives, but towards the west of the District they are seldom eaten. Along the Brahmaputra, a particular class, the Ganrárs, make a profession of catching them; they are also caught by all classes of common fishermen. The Ganrars catch the turtle by means of a harpoon with three barbed prongs about four inches in length, and sell the flesh to petty dealers, who retail it throughout the country, especially in the markets frequented by the Gáros. who seem remarkably fond of this food. The river turtles are of several varieties. The most common is called chhim or panimech. In the Brahmaputra it is very often found five or six feet long and fourteen inches thick. It lays its eggs between the middle of August and the middle of September, as the floods begin to retire: and in one hole the fishermen sometimes make a prize of two hundred eggs. Another kind of river turtle is called dandil: it attains a length of five feet and is no less than two feet in thickness. It is said to be very scarce, and is reckoned better eating than the chhim. A third species, called kachhim or ját kachhim, is very common. It also is considered better than the chhim, but it does not grow to more than eighteen inches in length. It is readily distinguished by four yellowish circles on its back. All the foregoing varieties live in rivers, and never frequent the banks or marshes, as do the land tortoises. They deposit their eggs in holes formed in the sand, and eat nothing except fish. The durd is another variety of river turtle: but the same name is also applied to some kinds of land tortoises. It grows to about two feet in length, and the flesh is considered to

be better than any of the above-mentioned kinds. The six principal varieties of land tortoises are the following:-Salidurd or durd kathuyú, about six inches long; kuji kathuyú; pangchuri; khagrahatii; and kari kathuyii, all growing to about a foot in length. Land tortoises, although occasionally seen in rivers, more usually frequent the marshes, and often burrow under ground. Their flesh is reckoned better eating than the flatter varieties of river turtle. Two kinds of crocodile are found in the Brahmaputra, the charial (Crocodilus Gangeticus) and the bangehá. The Gangar caste kill both kinds of crocodile. Some of these fishermen informed Dr. Buchanan Hamilton that they had killed the bangchá fifteen feet in length, and that one of this size was much heavier than a gharral of eighteen feet long, which was the largest they had met with. In the water the bangcha attacks both men and cattle; but on shore he is shy and timid, and great stealthiness must be exercised on approaching near him, as he takes to the water on the least alarm. The bangeha usually frequents ponds and marshes, and it is only when these become entirely dry that they retire to the rivers. They live in holes, which they dig in the bank of the pond or river. In these holes they lay from twenty to thirty eggs between the 10th February and 10th March; the old ones take care of the young for a month, supplying them with fish to eat, after which they are able to provide for themselves. charid is esteemed a much purer animal than the banecha, and never lives in stagnant water, nor in holes in the earth. It does not attack men or cattle, and lives entirely on fish. The female lays her eggs at the same season as the bangchá. She digs a trench near the margin of the river, and there deposits ten or twelve eggs, which she covers with sand. She watches the eggs all day, but at night retires into the river, being remarkably shy and timid on shore. The young are hatched between the middle of May and the middle of June, and require the care of the mother for a month. The eggs of the gharial are considered a remedy for small-pox, and for the similar disease in cattle known as basanta. When the fishermen are able to approach either kind of crocodile unobserved, they strike him with a harpoon, which has one iron prong about three inches in length barbed on one side. The plug of wood into which the iron is fastened is connected with the shaft (a very light bamboo) by a rope of about twelve feet long, which is neatly rolled round the shaft. The Ganrars throw the harpoon with great dexterity at from fifteen to twenty yards' distance. On striking the crocodile,

the head of the harpoon comes out, the rope unrolls itself, and, on the animal rushing into the water, the floating shaft directs the hunter where to pursue. This he does in a fast-rowing boat, and takes the first opportunity of striking with another and stronger harpoon, with which he can drag the animal on shore. The omentum of both kinds of crocodile yields an oil which is used for burning,—that of the gharidl yielding from three to five times as much as the bangchá. Two kinds of lizards or guanas, called gadhiká and subarná gadhiká, are found, but are not common.

Serpents are numerous; but it is chiefly in high places of small extent, which are everywhere surrounded by lowlands, that casualties occur. When the floods begin, the reptiles are driven suddenly into these small elevated spots by the inundation of the lowlands, and are often compelled to take shelter in the houses, where they are trodden on in the dark, upon which they bite their assailants. The loss of life in Rangpur District from snake-bites for the three years ending 1868-69 is returned by the police as follows:—1866-67, 57; 1867-68, 55; 1868-69, 92: annual average for the three years, 68. No Government rewards have ever been given for the destruction of poisonous snakes.

FISHES.—Dr. Buchanan Hamilton gives an elaborate account of 126 different kinds of fish found in the District, of which the following is the bare list of names:—(1) Tenpá (tetrodon fluviatilis); (2) devkátá (syngnathus deocata); (3) nadir báim (macrognathus armatus); (4) biim (macrognathus aculeatus); (5) gochi (macrognathus pancalus); (6) búliyá (gobius gutum); (7) khalishá (trichopodus colisa); (8) beji khalishá (trichopodus bejeus); (9) bilk sontak (trichopodus cotra); (10) sádá khalishá (trichopodus sota); (11) chuná khalishá (trichopodus chuna); (12) lál khalishá (trichopodus lalius); (13) cheng (ophiocephalus gachua); (14) garni (ophiocephalus lata); (15) motá (ophiocephalus wrahle); (16) chená (ophiocephalus chena); (17) gajūl (ophiocephalus marulius); (18) barkii (ophiocephalus barca); (19) galpuri (laprus badis); (20) silvar koyi (coius cobojius); (21) bhalii (coius nandus); (22) chándá (chanda nama); (23) bikul chindi (chanda baculis); (24) phul chándá (chanda phula); (25) bagurá chándá (chanda bogoda); (26) hil chinda (chanda lala); (27) dari (cobitis daris); (28) gengto (cobitis geto); (29) pangiyá (cobitis pangia); (30) bulá (cobitis guntea); (31) botivá (cobitis botia); (32) turi (cobitis turio); (33) bil turi (cobitis bilturio); (34) ghorzotá (cobitis ghorgota); (35)

gharuyá (silurus garua); (36) kocha (not given); (37) pábdá or pábho (silurus pabo); (38) kúni pábdú (silurus canio); (39) bodli (silurus boalis); (40) singi (silurus singio); (41) mágur (macropteronotus magur); (42) kajoli (malapterurus coila); (43) lengrii or mosá (pimelodus carcio); (44) bis tengrá (pimelodus tengara); (45) bátási tengrá (pimelodus batasio); (46) kengyá (pimelodus rama); (47) kauyá tengrá (pimelodus cavia); (48) kenyá tengrá (nearly related to the last); (49) páthari tengrá (pimelodus cavasius); (50) gágor (not identified); (51) changrármárá (pimelodus chandramara); (52) rám tengrá (pimelodus rama); (53) tengaina (pimelodus tengana); (54) barádahá (pimelodus urua); (55) doná (pimelodus anguis); (56) ritá (pimelodus rita); (57) fánçás (pimelodus pangasius); (58) silon (pimelodus silondia); (59) bichii (pimelodus vacha); (60) árí (pimelodus arius); (61) bigh árí (pimelodus bagarius); (62) khontá (pimelodus conta); (63) bhot mágur (pimelodus botius); (64) sisor (sisor rabdophorus); (65) chaká (platystacus chaca); (66) gharryá or chore (esox cancila); (67) bilitorá (cyprinus balitora); (68) sukati (cyprinus sucatio); (69) khaskhasini (mugil cascasia); (70) mugi or ingli (mugil corsula); (71) phaingrá (clupea telara); (72) phensú (clupea phasa); (73) phalusi or phole (mystus capirat); (74) bará chitál (mystus chitala); (75) chitál (nearly the same as the last); (76) ilish or hilsa (clupanodon hilisha); (77) manmin (clupanodon manmina); (78) khayrá or karalí (clupanodon cortius); (79) morti or moti (clupanodon motius); (80) ghord chelá (cyprinus gora); (81) naryálí chelá (cyprinus bacaila); (82) Phul chelá (cyprinus phulo); (83) layu bhuká (cyprinus laubuca); (84) layu kuli (cyprinus atpar); (85) bhold (cyprinus bola); (86) buk rángí (not given) ; (87) bálibholá (cyprinus borelis) ; (88) barilá (cyprinus barila et chedris); (89) khaksá (cyprinus cocsa); (90) chedrá (cyprinus chedra); (91) chhephá (cyprinus devario); (92) rám chándá (cyprinus rasbora); (93) elangá (cyprinus elanga); (94) jauri (cyprinus bata); (95) bhángan (cyprinus cura); (96) akhrá (cyprinus acra); (97) lachhimá (resembles the last); (98) voya bhángan (cyprinus boga); (99) mrigal or mirgal (cyprinus mirgala); (100) rohit or rui (cyprinus rohita); (101) kurchhá (cyprinus cursa et gonius); (102) mahá saul (cyprinus putitora); (103) tor (cyprinus tor); (104) angrá (cyprinus angra); (105) morul (cyprinus morala); (106) dhengro (cyprinus dero); (107) jaoyalli (cyprinus joalius); (108) kálbasu (cyprinus calbasu); (109) kálal or kállá (cyprinus catla); (110) darange (cyprinus chagunio); (111) saran punthi (cyprinus sarana); (112) punthi (cyprinus sophore); (113) chold punthi (cyprinus chola); (114) teri-punthi (cyprinus terio); (115) tit-punthi (cyprinus ticto); (116) kánchan-punthi (cyprinus conchonias); (117) geli-punthi (cyprinus gelius); (118) phutuni-punthi (cyprinus phutunio); (119) kani-punthi (cyprinus canius); (120) ghugini (cyprinus guganio); (121) manya, mola, or mauralà (cyprinus mola); (122) ghila chanda (cyprinus cotio); (123) dorkina or danikona (cyprinus daniconius); (124) sada balitora (cyprinus sada); (125) lati (cyprinus latius); (126) kuchiya (unibranchapertura cuchia).

Population.—Rangpur is one of the most densely populated Districts in Bengal. Several attempts have been made towards an enumeration of the people, but the results of the general Census of 1872 prove that all previous estimates were very wide of the mark. The earliest recorded estimate is that of 1789, in which year the Collector returned the population of the then District (including Kuch Behar) at 459,512; which, after striking out the figures relating to tracts since separated, and, on the other hand, allowing for subsequent transfers to Rangpur, would amount to a population in 1789, for the area comprising the present District, of about 400,000. This estimate must have been very much too low; but at that time it was almost inevitable that the Collector should understate the number of the people, and it was the interest of the zamindairs to make out their lands to be in as poor a state as possible.

In 1809 Dr. Buchanan Hamilton returned the population of Rangpur at 2,735,000, or 2,084,000 according to the present limits of the District. It is difficult to come to any definite conclusion as to the increase of the population in this District from these discrepant data. The first estimate is very much too low a one, while that of Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, on the other hand, appears to be much too high. The details of Dr. Buchanan Hamilton's estimate are exhibited in the following table:—

ESTIMATED POPULATION OF RANGPUR IN OR ABOUT 1809, ACCORDING TO DR. BUCHANAN HAMILTON.

Police Circuits (thands).		Muhammadans.	Hindus,	Total.
1. Kotwálí, . 2. Dháp, . 3. Phuranbári, . 4. Báruní, . 5. Pátgrám, . 6. Fakirganj, . 7. Sanyásikátá, . 8. Bodá, . 9. Dimlá, . 10. Darwání, . 11. Kumárganj, . 12. Malang, . 13. Bághdwár, . 14. Pírganj, . 15. Sádullápur, . 16. Govindganj, . 17. Díwángani, . 18. Bhawániganj, . 19. Chilmári, . 20. Ulípur, .		31,000 187,000 43,000 35,000 17,000 41,000 100,000 29,000 106,000 52,000 61,000 54,000 92,000 134,000 27,000 98,000 47,000	19,000 85,000 43,000 57,000 28,000 32,000 41,000 65,000 36,000 32,000 21,000 18,000 18,000 18,000 16,000 59,000 28,000 64,000	50,000 272,000 80,000 92,000 45,000 73,000 83,000 142,000 84,000 84,000 72,000 74,000 147,000 214,000 157,000 75,000 169,000
21. Barábarí, 22. Nágeswari, 23. Dhubrí, . 24. Rángámátí,	· ·	\$8,000 30,000 11,000	84,000 52,000 53,000 82,000	134,000 140,000 83,000 93,000
Total		1,536,000	1,199,000	2,735,000

Since the time of Dr. Buchanan Hamilton's survey, the thainis of Dhubri and Rangamati have been transferred to Goalpara; Diwanganj to Maimansinh; and Fakirganj, Sanyasikata, Boda, and Patgram to Jalpaiguri. Deducting the figures for these thainis, there remains a balance of 1,268,000 Muhammadans and 816,000 Hindus; total, 2,084,000 for the area of the existing District.

These figures approximate very closely to the population of the District as ascertained by the general Census in 1872 (2,150,179); but Mr. Collector Glazier is of opinion that they considerably exceeded the population as existing in 1809, and gives the following reasons in support of his view:—'According to Buchanan Hamilton's estimate, the population was almost the same in 1809 as at present, after a prosperous period of over sixty years. When Buchanan Hamilton went over the land, it was fairly cultivated, but there was still a large quantity of good land left that had not come under the

plough; and it is out of the question to suppose that there has been no increase of population since his time. Very little land is left uncultivated now; and the complaint all over the country is, that there is not enough grazing ground for the cattle. Hamilton arrived at his figures in the following manner. He passed through a great part of the District, and from his personal observation and inquiries in every direction he made a calculation of the quantity of cultivated land; and, assuming that one plough could cultivate fifteen bighds or five acres, to every plough he counted five persons for the agricultural population, adding to his results certain proportions to make up the non-agricultural portion of the people. Now, taking as correct this calculation of cultivated land,—a very large assumption, it seems to me that the apportionment of five persons of agricultural population to each plough is excessive. The families in this District are small; the boys begin early to follow the plough; and many are compelled to remain unmarried to a comparatively late age, because the well-to-do classes of the agriculturists monopolize more than their fair share of the women. I think a calculation of three to a plough would be much nearer the truth; and this would give a population (for the area of the existing District) in 1800 of 1,200,000. Buchanan Hamilton in 1809 estimated that the population had increased onethird during the preceding twenty years. Taking the increase as such, the population having doubled in many parts mainly by immigration, and calculating a further increase of two-thirds for the sixtythree years between 1809 and 1872, which seems a not excessive estimate, the figures (for the area of the existing District) would stand thus in round numbers: - Population in 1789, 720,000; ditto in 1809, 1,200,000; ditto in 1872, 2,149,972 (Census figures).'

The first regular Census of Rangpur was taken simultaneously throughout the District on the night of the 15th January 1872. The results disclosed a total population of 2,149,972 souls, dwelling in 4206 villages or townships, and 331,079 houses; the average density of population throughout the District being 619 to the square mile. The manner in which the Census was carried out is thus described by the District officer:—'The plan pursued by the Assistant Magistrate, to whom was entrusted the work of preparing the lists of survey mausas or halkas (collections of villages) in each thana (police circle), was as follows: A tracing of each thana, according to the revised boundaries, was made on the one-inch-to-the-nhile map, and over each mausa or halkas its serial number in the

main registers was written in red ink. If, as was often the case, the name of the mausa was not mentioned on the one-inch-to-the-mile map, reference was made to the four-inch-to-the-mile congregated village sheets, and the mausa being discovered, its number was written as nearly as possible over the spot where the name of the mausa ought to have been. This process was a tedious one, but it was the only way in which an accurate list of the survey mausais or halkas in each thana could be prepared.

'The chief supervisor was a paid officer, because there was no Government official available for the duty; the supervisors were also all paid, because the time allowed for preparation was short. No police officers fit for such posts were available. The enumerators were chosen mostly from the patwaris (village accountants), who exist nearly all over the District. In the few places where they were not available, the services of the camindari muharrirs (landholders' clerks) were made use of. The mandals (village heads), tahsildars (rent-collectors), and mukhtars (law agents) were also employed, but only one constable who was able to read and write. The chaukldars (village watchmen) were made very useful in assisting the enumerators in their work. In the town, schoolmasters were employed as enumerators, but not many in the rural parts. Parwards (requisitions) were issued to about five hundred samindars to assist the supervisors and enumerators; and great assistance was rendered by the agents of Mahárání Swarnamayi. The samindárs' servants who gave assistance were ordinarily the local agents and servants of the zamindars. In fact, I believe that all classes who could in any way assist have been employed in some degree or other."

As regards the accuracy of the Census, the District officer is of opinion that 'he would be a bold man who would say that the Census was accurate;' but he 'believes that every precaution was taken to secure as accurate a Census as possible, and the figures given may fairly be presumed to be approximate.'

Rangpur is the most populous District in the Rájsháhí Division. Only in the two police circles (thánás) of Pírganj and Chilmárí is the population less than five hundred to the square mile, the average for the whole District being nearly one person for every acre. The most densely populated parts are the tracts on either side of the Tistá, which bisects the District from north-west to south-east. The whole District is more amply watered than any other in the Division, and this probably accounts for its denser population.

The table on the following page, exhibiting the area, population, etc. of each police circle (thánd) of Rangpur District, is quoted from the Census Report of 1872. The averages given are those of the Census officers, and have not been subjected to verification.

Population classified according to Sex, Religion, and Age. -The total population of Rangpur District consisted in 1872 of 2,149,972 souls, namely, 1,095,026 males and 1,054,946 females. Proportion of males in the total population, 50.83 per cent.; average density of the population, 619 per square mile. Classified according to religion and age, the Census gives the following results:-Muhammadans—under twelve years of age, males 248,058, and females 188,742; total 436,800: above twelve years, males 414,085, and females 440,580; total 854,665. Total Muhammadans of all ages, males 662,143, and females 629,322; grand total 1,291,465, or 60 of per cent. of the District population. Hindus-under twelve years of age, males 143,249, and females 115,616; total 258,865; above twelve years, males 289,312, and females 309,121; total 598,433. Total Hindus of all ages, males 432,561, and females 424,737; grand total 857,298, or 39.87 of the District population. Christians -under twelve years of age, males 10, and females 16; total 26: above twelve years, males 26, and females 21; total 47. Total Christians of all ages, males 36, and females 37; grand total 73. Other denominations not separately classified, consisting of Buddhists and aboriginal races and tribes-under twelve years of age, males 107, and females 132; total 239: above twelve years, males 179. and females 718; total 897. Total 'others' of all ages, males 286, and females 850; grand total 1136, or o5 per cent. of the District population. Population of all religions—under twelve years of age, males 391,424, and females 304,506; total 695,930: above twelve vears, males 703,602, and females 750,440; total 1,454,042. District population of all ages, males 1,095,026, and females 1,054,946; grand total 2,149,972: proportion of males in total District population, 50.83 per cent.

The percentage of children not exceeding twelve years of age in the population, of different religions, is returned in the Census Report as follows:—Muhammadans—proportion of male children 19'2 per cent., and of female children 14'6 per cent.; proportion of children of both sexes, 33'8 per cent. of the Muhammadan population. Hindus—male children 16'7 per cent., and female children [Sentence continued on page 210.

POPULATION, ETC., OF EACH POLICE CIRCLE (THANA) OF RANGPUR, 1872. ARSTRACT OF AREA.

• This is only the approximate area as taken for the purposes of the Centus; but for the cake of uniformity I have adopted it for all calculations of percentages and averages based upon the area throughout this Account. The exact area of the District, as returned by the Boundary Commissioner in November 1874, is 3411'54 square miles.

Sentence continued from page 208.]

13'5 per cent.; proportion of children of both sexes, 30'2 per cent. of the Hindu population. Buddhists-male children 8.2 per cent. and female children 9.8 per cent.; proportion of children of both sexes, 180 per cent. of the Buddhist population. Christians-male children 13.7 per cent., and female children 21.9 per cent.; proportion of children of both sexes, 35.6 per cent. of the total Christian population. Other denominations—male children 9.5 per cent. and female children 11.7 per cent.; proportion of children of both sexes, 21'2 per cent. of the total 'other' population. Population of all religions-male children 182 per cent, and female children 14'2 per cent.; proportion of children of both sexes, 32'4 per cent. of the total District population. The small proportion of girls to boys, and the excessive proportion of females above twelve years of age to males of the same class, is probably due to the fact that natives consider girls attain womanhood at a much earlier age than boys reach manhood. The proportion of the sexes of all ages, namely, males 50.83 per cent., and females 49.17 per cent., is probably correct. The general excess of males over females is explained by the fact that a large number of labourers from neighbouring Districts come to Rangpur for the harvesting (the season of the year at which the Census was taken), leaving their wives and families behind them.

The number and proportion of insanes and of persons afflicted with certain other infirmities in Rangpur District is thus returned in the Census Report:—Insanes—males 695, and females 223, total 918, or '0427 per cent. of the District population. Idiots—males 37, and females 14; total 51, or '0024 per cent. of the population. Deaf and dumb—males 594, and females 192; total 786, or '0366 per cent. of the population. Blind—males 954, and females 463; total 1417, or '0659 per cent. of the population. Lepers—males 2120, and females 182; total 2302, or '1071 per cent. of the population. The total number of male infirms amounted to 4400, or '4018 per cent. of the total male population; number of female infirms 1074, or '1018 per cent. of the total female population. The total number of infirms of both sexes was 5474, or '2546 per cent. of the total District population.

Population according to Occupation.—I omit the details of population according to occupation given in the District Census Compilation, as they do not stand the test of statistical criticism.

ETHNICAL DIVISION OF THE PROPLE.—The races in Rangpur District are divided by the Collector into two classes,—Aryans, and aboriginal tribes or races. The first class consists of settlers from Bengal or other parts of India, who by the tide of conquest or desire of trade and employment have immigrated into the District and permanently settled there. These settlers are of various religions and sects, consisting of Hindus, Sikhs, Jains, and Muhammadans. The second class consists of aboriginal and semi-aboriginal tribes, such as the Koch or Rajbansi, Mech or Kurf, and others. The characteristic features of these people—flat faces, broad noses, and high cheek-bones-clearly show that they belong to the Mongolian race. They were the indigenous inhabitants of Rangpur, who founded the last local dynasty previous to the irruption of the Muhammadans; and the marked Mongol physiognomy of the people is unmistakeable in the portion of the District bordering on Kuch (Koch) Behar. In Buchanan Hamilton's time, these tribes numbered half the Hindu inhabitants of Govindganj, but the line of demarcation has now been pushed farther north.

Mr. C. F. Magrath's District Census Compilation for Rangpur thus classes the ethnical divisions of the people. The list of Hindu castes will be reproduced on a subsequent page, but arranged in a different order from that given here, according to the rank which they hold in local public esteem.

Name of Nationality, Tribe, on Castel	Number.	Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste.	Number.
I.—NON-ASIATICS. European— English,	19 2 1 5	III.—ASIATICS. A.—Other than Natives of India and Burmah. Armenian, Nepálí,	1
Total, . II.—MIXED RACES. Eurasian,	28	B.—Natives of India and British Burmah. 1. Aboriginal Tribes. Káchárí, Rabhá,	21

	fationality, dr Castel	Number.	NAME OF NATIONALITY, TRIBE, OR CASTE	Number
	nal Tribes— inued.		(iii.) Trading Castes.	
			Agarwálá and Márwárí, . Gandhbanik,	6
Telengá, Nat,		671	Kainyá.	75
Dhángár,		157 242	Khatri,	1 11
Bhumij,	: : :	3	Oswál,	5
Bhar, .		1 4	Subarnábanik,	41,
}	Total, .	1,109	Total, .	1,48
1			(iv.) PASTORAL CASTES.	
	Hinduised	1	Gareri,	
	rigimes.	1 .	Goálá,	3,04
Bágdí, . Báheliá,		63	1	3,04
Báncha, Báurí, .		6	Total,	3,05
Bediyá,		45	1	
Bhuiyá, .	• • •	2,160	(v.) CASTES ENGAGED IN	
Buna,	• • •	191	PREPARING COOKED FOOD.	1
Cháin.	: : :	22	Gánrár	1 1
Chámar and	Muchí	3,628	Halwái,	24
Kuril, .		5,475	Madak,	5,55
Chandál,		36,148	1	
Dom,		3,095	Total, .	5,81
Dosadh,		105	1	
Hári,	• • •	6,213	(vi.) AGRICULTURAL	
Karangá,		1 6	CASTES.	I
Khyen, . Koch, .		20,013	Agurí,	1
Palí,	• • •	6,345	Rarui,	1,37
Rájbansí.	• • •	399,407	Támbulí,	31
Mái,		399,407	Chásá Dhopá,	1
Mihtar, .		2,298	Kaibartta,	35,39
Bhuimálí,		3,771	Kurmi,	21,62
Pási,		194	Máli.	1,36
Shikárí,		389	Ilakár,	700
			Bhatiá,	1,15
	Total, .	492,149	Sadgop,	13
1			Others,	ĺŠ
	lindus.	J	1	
	ior Castes,	ı	Total, .	63,61
Bráhman,		10,623	(vii.) CASTES PHOAGED	
Rájput,		2,404	CHIEFLY IN PERSONAL	i .
			SERVICE.	1
1	Total, .	13,027	Hájjám, or Nápit,	1
L	_		Dhobá,	13,72
(ü.) Interme	DIATE CAST	19.]	Behárá.	19,05
Baidyá, .		886	Káhár,	70
Bhát, .		21	Dhánuk,	ı ′-
Káyasth,	• • •	10,387	Dháwá,	1,30
ł	Total,	11,294	Total, ,	35.59
L				33:39
				

Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste.	Number.	Name of Nationality, Tribe, or Castel	Number.
(viii.) ARTISAN CASTES. Kámár (blacksmith), Kánsárí (brazier), Sonár (goldsmith), Sutradhar (carpenter), Kumár (potter),	4,237 306 255 2,326 6,709	(xiii.) Dancer, Musician, Beggar, and Vaga- Bond Castes. Báití, etc.,	1,091
Sunri (distiller), Telí (oilman), Kalu (ditto), Sánkhárí (shell-cutter), .	7,692 2,528 734 35	(xiv.) Persons enume- rated by Nationality only.	
Total, .	24,822	Hindustání, Panjábí,	3 56
(iz.) WEAVER CASTES.		Total, .	59
Tántí,	6,819	(xv.) Persons of Unknown or Unspecified Caste,	7.415
Ganesh, Kápálí,	260 316	Grand Total of Hindus,	339,983
Total, .	10,034		
(x.) LABOURING CASTES. Beldár,	139 73	4. Persons of Hindu origin not recognising Caste. Vaishnav,	24,451
Total, .	212	Tantránáth,	420 268 32
(xi.) Castes occupied in Selling Fish and Vegetables.		Total, .	25,171
Sabzi,	14 5	5. Muhammadans.	280
Total, .	19	Julahá,	280 815 113 1,290,257
(xii.) Boating and Fishing Casi es.		•	1,291,465
Jáliyá,	16,301 401	6. Burmese.	
Pátuní,	2, 178 1	Maghs,	53
Tiyar,	141,213 388	TOTAL OF NATIVES OF INDIA,	2, 149, 930
Mánjhí, Keut,	1,004 961	TOTAL OF ASIATICS, .	2,149,932
Total, .	162,447	GRAND TOTAL, .	2, 149, 972

CASTES.—The following is a list of ninety-one Hindu cast.: met with in Rangpur District, arranged as far as possible in the order in which they rank in local public esteem, together with their occupations, etc. The figures showing the number of each caste are extracted from Mr. C. F. Magrath's District Census Compilation for Rangpur.

HIGH CASTES.—The following eight rank highest:—(1) Brahman; members of the priesthood; many are also landholders, and others are employed in Government or private service. In 1809 Buchanan Hamilton estimated the total number of Brahmans in Rangpur at about six thousand families. The number of Brahmans in Rangpur District amounted in 1872, according to the Census Report, to 10,623. The settlement of the sacerdotal class of Hindus in Rangpur has taken place within historical times. The following account of the immigration of Brahmans into this District, together with much information concerning other castes, is condensed from Buchanan Hamilton's Ms. Report on Rangpur. The earliest Brahman settlement appears to have taken place in the thirteenth or fourteenth century, having been introduced from Mithild or Tirhut by the Rajas of Kamatapur. These Brahmans are still numerous in the north and west of Rangpur, and in the State of Kuch Behar. This class of Brahmans is said to be not disgraced by acting as spiritual guides or priests to the lower classes; and they have many followers among the Súdra castes, as also among the semi-aboriginal tribes of Rajbansis and Khyens. The next Brahman colony in point of antiquity in Rangpur was formed by immigrants from Kanauj or Oudh, who are now called Kamrupi Vaidiks. They were introduced about the beginning of the sixteenth century by Viswa Sinh, but whether direct from Kanauj or through Sylhet does not seem to be clearly ascertained. At any rate they have now entirely separated from the Sylhet Vaidiks, and have adopted customs peculiar to themselves. Many also of these Brahmans act as priests and religious instructors to the lower castes. They do not themselves lose caste by so doing, although their children become less acceptable in marriage. In the southern part of the District, the Brahmans principally belong to the Barendra and Rárhi classes (described in my Account of Rájsháhí District). These would lose their purity by ministering to Súdras, and they look down upon the two first-named classes of Brahmans. A few Utkala or Orissa Brahmans are found in Rangpur, as also a few Brahman

families from the west of India, called bhuiyari or zamindár Bráhmans. Besides their duties as priests and religious instructors, the Brahmans of Rangpur occupy many offices in the administration of justice, in the police, in the collection of the public revenue, and also in the management of large private estates. (2) Acharjya or Daibaiya; astrologers and fortune-tellers. They wear the sacred thread, and are considered as a class of degraded Brahmans, who have lapsed from caste on account of their indiscriminate acceptance of alms. They are not returned as a separate caste in the Census Report, and are probably included in the general body of Brahmans. (2) Bhát: heralds and genealogists; many of them also rent land, which they cultivate by means of hired labour. The Bhats assert themselves to be lapsed Brahmans, and wear the sacred thread, but their claims in this respect are disputed by many. They are ranked as a separate caste in the Census Report, in which their number is returned at 21. (4) Kshattriya; the second or warrior caste in the ancient Hindu social organization. At the present day, however, it is believed that there are no pure Kshattriyas in Bengal, and the caste given as 'Khatri' in the Census Report is the great trading class of Upper India. Their number in Rangpur District in 1872 is returned at 118. (5) Rajput; employed in military service, and as guards, policemen, and doorkeepers. They claim to be Kshattriyas by descent, probably on account of their military occupation. The Census Report of 1872 returns their number in Rangpur District at 2404. (6) Baidyá; hereditary physicians by caste occupation. Most of the members of this caste in the District are immigrants from other Districts, who have come in search of service, and have betaken themselves to various employments. Some are employed as priests. The number of Baidyas in Rangpur District in 1872 is returned at 886. (7) Káyasth; the writer caste of Bengal; employed in Government service, as zamindári revenue officers and agents, in mercantile pursuits, and in every other occupation followed by the respectable classes. A large number of the Assam tribe of Kolitás have assumed the title and rank of Káyasths, and. according to Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, 'conceal their descent from the Kolitás with as much care as the Rájá of (Kuch) Behar does his origin from a Koch.' At the present day, however, it appears that the Kolita Kayasths are held in equal esteem with the Bengal Káyasths. The Census Report in 1872 returned the number of Káyasths in Rangpur District at 10,387. (8) Márwárí and Agarwálá; wealthy up-country traders. They are two distinct castes, but are returned together in the Census Report, which gives their number in Rangpur District at 67.

PURE SUDRA CASTES.—Next in rank come the following sixteen Súdra castes, from whose hands a Bráhman can take water or uncooked food without injury to his caste. Originally these pure Súdra castes were only nine in number, called nabasák, but some of them have split up into two or three subdivisions, all held in equal respect, while other lower castes, by their influence and wealth, have forced themselves forward into a position of equal social respectability. (9) Nápit; barbers; 13,726 in number. Kámár; blacksmiths; 4237 in number. (11) Kuniár; potters; 6709 in number. (12) Telf or Tilf; oil pressers and sellers by caste occupation. Many, however, have now abandoned their hereditary profession, and are traders in salt and grain. Some of the wealthiest merchants of Rangpur District belong to this caste. Number in 1872, 2528. (13) Támbulí or Támlí; originally bán growers and sellers by caste occupation, but now traders and merchants in grain and salt; 319 in number. (14) Bárui; growers and sellers of pan or betel leaf; 1374 in number. (15) Sadgop, commonly called Chásá-Goálá; the highest of the cultivating castes. Buchanan Hamilton states that they are properly tenders of cattle, who have now betaken themselves to agriculture. Number in 1872 in Rangpur District, 136. (16) Málí; gardeners and flower sellers; 2068 in number. (17) Gandhabanik; grocers and spice dealers; 758 in number. (18) Sánkhárí; shell-cutters and makers of shell bracelets; 35 in number. (19) Kainyá; traders and merchants; 66 in number. (20) Oswál; traders and merchants; 57 in number. (21) Kánsárí; braziers and coppersmiths; 306 in number. (22) Aguri; a respectable mixed caste of cultivators; according to Buchanan Hamilton, its members lay claim to the dignity of Kshattriyahood. Number in Rangpur District in 1872, 9. (23) Kurmi; a respectable cultivating caste, immigrants from the country in the neighbourhood of Patná; 1360 in number. (24) Kaibarttas: Buchanan Hamilton also classes the Kaibarttas among the pure Súdra castes, although it is generally believed that they belong to one of the aboriginal tribes of Western Dengal, who during the early period of the Aryan colonization succeeded by their numbers and influence in obtaining admission to Hinduism on honourable terms. Further mention of the Kaibarttas will be found in my Statistical

Accounts of Húghi and Midnapur Districts. The Kaibarttas are one of the Súdra castes who are ministered to by Bráhman priests who have lapsed from pure Bráhmanhood. To such an extent are these lapsed Bráhmans looked down upon, that although a pure Bráhman may receive water from a Kaibartta without injury to his caste, yet even a respectable Súdra (other than a Kaibartta) would be degraded by receiving food or water from the Bráhman priest by whom the Kaibarttas are instructed. The number of Kaibarttas in Rangpur in 1872 is returned at 35,396.

INTERMEDIATE SUDRA CASTES.—The intermediate Súdra castes. who are neither esteemed nor despised, but who have some claim to respectability, are the following twenty-six:—(25) Koeri: cultivators; given as a separate caste in the Census Report, but they are probably merely a branch of Kaibarttas. Number in Rangpur District in 1872, 21,626. (26) Garerí; an up-country pastoral caste; 1 in number. (27) Goálá; milkmen and cowherds; 3049 in number. (28) Chásá Dhopá; cultivators; 15 in number. (29) Gánrár; sellers and preparers of parched rice; 16 in number. (30) Another caste called Gánrár, quite distinct from the above, is mentioned by Buchanan Hamilton, but not returned in the Census Report. garding this caste Dr. Buchanan Hamilton states: 'The Gánrárs are a tribe of fishermen, criginally from the vicinity of Dacca, of whom about two hundred families have settled in this District. along the banks of the Brahmaputra. They do not use a net, but strike otters, porpoises, crocodiles, tortoises, and large fish with various kinds of spears, in the use of which they are very dexterous. They also have fast-rowing boats, in which they are employed to carry messages and to act as guards. The robbers who swarm on the river (1809) dread the spear of the Gánrár, and seldom venture to attack them or any boats that are under their protection. Those that have lately come from Dacca are of a higher social rank than the others, and have a Brahman for their religious guide. They make frequent sacrifices of a particular species of river tortoise (jat káchhím) to a female deity called Kalá Kumárí (daughter of the deep), who afflicts with sickness all those who neglect to make such ofterings. These Gánrárs sell only tortoises and otter skins, and live upon the fish which they catch. The other class, who have been long settled in the country, are of a much lower rank, and have no Brahman priest. They sell the fish they catch, and have taken to eating pork and drinking spirituous liquors. The two classes neither

eat together nor intermarry.' (31) Madak; sweetmeat makers; 5554 in number. (32) Halwai or Halwaikar; consectioners. etc.; 244 in number. (33) Hakár; cultivators; 116 in number. (34) Bhatia; cultivators; 1153 in number. (35) Vaishnav; a class of Hindus professing the doctrines of Chaitanya, a religious reformer of the fifteenth century, which inculcate renunciation of caste and the equality of man before his Maker. Caste principles. however, are said to be now creeping in among them. Number in Rangpur District in 1872, 24,451. (36) Sanyásí, 268 in number. and (37) Tantránáth, 420 in number; two sects of Sivaite religious ascetics, who also profess renunciation of caste. (38) Tantí; weavers; 2578 in number. (39) Sutradhar or Chhutár; carpenters; 2326 in number. (40) Kalu; oil pressers and sellers; 734 in number. (41) Subarnábanik or Sonárbaniá; dealers in gold and silver, bankers and money-changers; 414 in number. (42) Sekerá or Swarnákár; goldsmiths and jewellers; 255 in number. (43) Barendrá Sháhá; not separately mentioned in the Census Report. They probably belong to the Suri (also called Shaha) or wine-distilling caste, but have abandoned their hereditary occupation, and are now well-to-do grain and salt merchants. In Buchanan Hamilton's time they were said to number about five hundred houses in Rangpur District. (44) Ganesh; returned in the Census Report as a weaving caste, but stated by Buchanan Hamilton to be potters; 260 in number. (45) Iálivá: fishermen; returned as a separate caste in the Census Report, but stated by Buchanan Hamilton to be a branch of the Kaibarttas; number in 1872, 16,301. (46) Jhál; fishermen; an offshoot of the foregoing caste; 401 in number. (47) Mánjhí; not a caste, but a class of boatmen who act as helmsmen; 1004 in number. (48) Málá; fishermen and boatmen; 388 in number. (40) Bayuri; makers of sweetmeats and various preparations from rice. Not given as a caste in the Census Report; but Buchanan Hamilton states that in his time the caste numbered about a hundred houses in Rangpur District. (50) Kapálí; weavers and umbrella-makers; 316 in number. Buchanan Hamilton states that the members of this caste in Rangpur are held in higher social esteem than in the neighbouring District of Dinajpur, and have Brahmans as their spiritual instructors. Number in 1872, 316.

Low Castes.—The following nineteen are low castes, and nearly all of them are of semi-aboriginal descent:—(51) Dhobá; washermen; 805 in number. (52) Sunri or Suri (also called Sháhá);

wine distillers and sellers; 7692 in number. The Barendrá Sháhás mentioned above (No. 43) are probably an offshoot of this caste. (53) Jogí or Jugí; weavers, lime-burners, and religious beggars: 6819 in number. Buchanan Hamilton is of opinion that these Jogis formed the priesthood of this part of the country in ancient times. The logis have separated into two branches, the members of one branch neither intermarrying nor eating with the other. The first branch, called Halingá, are weavers and cultivators; their women dye thread and retail turmeric, capsicum, and other condiments. The second class is called Theluya. Its members live by begging and reciting sacred poems, and when these fail to procure a subsistence, by burning lime from shells. A few of them have also taken to cultivation. Many also act as religious instructors and priests to the labouring classes. (54) Chapál; mentioned by Buchanan Hamilton as a low weaving caste in the north-west of the District, but not returned as a separate caste in the Census Report. (55) Julahá: weavers; 18 in number. (56) Derá; weavers; 43 in number. (57) Beldár; day-labourers; 139 in number. (58) Chunárí: burners of lime from shells; 73 in number. (50) Káhár; palanquin bearers and domestic servants in respectable families; 707 in number. (60) Dhánuk ; day-labourers and domestic servants ; 2 in number. (61) Dháwá; domestic servants; 1300 in number. (62) Behárá; palanguin bearers and day-labourers; 19,055. (63) Tior: fishermen and boatmen; the second most numerous caste in Rangpur District, returned in the Census Report of 1872 at 141,213. (64) Pátní; ferrymen and boatmen; also fishermen and basketmakers; 2178 in number. (65) Keut; fishermen; 961 in number. (66) Sabzí; sellers of vegetables; 14 in number. (67) Nikárí; fishmongers; 5 in number. (68) Báití; mat-makers and musicians; 1091 in number. (69) Chandál; cultivators and fishermen; 36,148 in number.

SEMI-ABORIGINAL CASTES.—The following twenty-two are all undoubtedly semi-aboriginal castes:—(70) Rájbansi; the most numerous caste or tribe in the District, numbering, according to the Census Report, 399,407 souls. (71) Pálí; 1906 in number. (72) Koch; 6345 in number. These three last mentioned are all branches of one aboriginal tribe. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton states that 'the most numerous and important tribes in this District are the Koch and Rájbansí, with their subdivisions, but they are generally looked upon as low and impure. This is naturally resented, especially

by their chiefs and princes, who lay claim to a divine origin. Many of them observe the Hindu law with such strictness, that in their own territory at least they are allowed to be real Súdras, and the Mithilá and Kámrúp Bráhmans admit them to be such, although the orthodox Bengali Brahmans hold them in contempt. Many of the chiefs claim to be descended from the Kshattrivas who escaped from the wrath of Parasurám, the Bráhman incarnation of Vishnu, in the war of extermination which he made upon them, by flying to Chin (China)." (73) Khyen. This is the next tribe of importance in this part of the country, and seems to rank higher than either of the foregoing. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton states that they 'are the only Kámrúpí tribe that the Brahmans of Bengal will admit to be pure Súdras, which clearly shows the great power that their princes held.' The number of Khyens in Rangpur District is returned at 20,013 in the Census Report of 1872. (74) Bhuiyá; cultivators and labourers; 191 in (75) Bauri; cultivators and labourers; 45 in number. number. (76) Báheliá; day-labourers; 6 in number. (77) Bágdí; cultivators, fishermen, and day-labourers; 63 in number. (78) Buná; daylabourers; 193 in number. (79) Cháin; cultivators and labourers; 22 in number. (80) Chámár and Muchí; shoemakers and leather dealers; 3628 in number. (81) Kuril; 5475 in number. (82) Dom; a very low caste of cultivators, fishermen, and basket-makers; 3095 in number. (83) Dosádh; cultivators and labourers; 195 in number. (84) Karangá; cultivators and labourers; 6 in number. (85) Mál; snake charmers and musicians; 386 in number. (86) Pásí; makers of toddy from date juice; 194 in number. (87) Shikari; hunters and fowlers; 389 in number. (88) Hárí; swineherds and sweepers; 6213 in number. (89) Mihtar; sweepers; 2298 in number. (90) Bhuimall; a branch of the foregoing; gardeners, basket-makers, and sweepers; 3771 in number. (91) Bediyá; a wandering gipsylike tribe, who gain their living by bird-catching, snake-catching, juggling, making drums, begging, etc., and when these fail, by petty thests; 2160 in number.

ABORIGINAL TRIBES.—The Census Report returns the following seven as aboriginal tribes; many of their members, however, have now embraced some form of Hinduism:—(92) Telengá; 671 in number. Dr. Buchanan Hamilton states they are a similar caste to the Bediyás. They live by begging, playing on drums, etc., and snaring birds; some of them also trade in cattle. (93) Rábhá; 11 in number. (94) Káchári; 21 in number. (95) Nát; 157 in

number. (96) Dhangár; 242 in number. (97) Bhumij; 3 in number. (98) Bhar; 4 in number.

RELIGIOUS DIVISION OF THE PEOPLE.—The great bulk of the population of Rangpur are Muhammadans and Hindus, the remainder consisting of a very small sprinkling of members of the Brahma Samai. Buddhists, Christians, and aboriginal tribes still professing their primitive forms of faith. According to the Census Report of 1872, the Muhammadans of Rangpur District number 662,143 males, and 620,322 females—total, 1,291,465, or 60 per cent. of the total population; proportion of Muhammadan males in total Musalman population, 51'3 per cent. The Hindus are returned at 432,561 males. and 424.737 females-total, 857,298, or 39.9 per cent. of the total population; proportion of males in total Hindu population, 50'5 per cent. The Census Report apparently includes the members of the Bráhmá Samáj, or reformed Theistic sect of Hindus, with the general Hindu population. The Buddhist population consists of only 46 males and 15 females—total, 61; and the Christians, of 36 males and 37 females-total, 73. Other religious denominations not separately classified, consisting of aboriginal tribes which still retain their ancient faiths, number 240 males and 835 females—total, 1075: proportion of males in total 'other' population, 22'3 per cent.

THE MUHAMMADANS form the majority of the population, numbering in 1872, 662,143 males, and 629,322 females—total, 1,291,465, or 60 per cent. of the total population of the District; proportion of males in the total Musalman population, 51'3 per cent. The existence of a large Muhammadan population is said to be accounted for rather by conversion of the original inhabitants than by immigration, although the latter also has tended to increase the number. On this subject Dr. Buchanan Hamilton writes: 'Although the followers of the Kurán form the largest proportion of the inhabitants of this district, there is little reason to suppose that many of them are intruders. They seem in general, from their countenances, to be descendants of the original inhabitants, who have been converted in a great measure probably by the intolerance of the Muhammadan Governors of Bengal. In the parts of the District which were conquered by the Mughuls, the original tribes have suffered less; for until the time of Aurangzeb, the princes of the house of Timur were perfectly tolerant. In some parts, as in Battrishazári, the number of Musalmans seems to be owing to an increase of cultivation. The zamindár, on the establishment of a settled government. invited strangers to settle on his estates more accustomed to a settled life than his own tenants, who had long been in the habit of skulking from wood to wood; and his supply came chiefly from Dinájpur, where most of the cultivators are Musalmáns.'

The Collector of the District reported to me, in 1871, that the Muhammadans of Rangpur have of late years divided into two sects, called Shárá and Be-Shárá. The former, called also Faráizis or Namázís, adhere strictly to the law of Muhammad as laid down in the Kurán, and abstain from the processions and ceremonial observances of the Muharram, which they consider are not enjoined by the sacred law. All the higher classes of Muhammadans in Rangpur are said to be gradually becoming Shárás or Faráizis, and it is only the lower orders that still observe the Muharram ceremonials and processions. The Be-Shárás are numerically stronger than the Sharas, but the latter, owing to their wealth and position, are the more influential. The Collector states there is no reason to believe that this new sect is fanatical or intolerant. The religion of Islám is said to have now ceased from making any further progress among the people.

THE HINDUS of Rangpur number 432,561 males, and 424,737 females—total, 857,298, or 39.9 per cent. of the District population; proportion of males in the total Hindu population, 50.5 per cent. Regarding the different religious orders of Hindus, I quote the following in a condensed form from Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, who obtained the information from a learned Goswami pandit of the District. He says that the Rangpur Bráhmans, as well as those of Bengal generally, are divided into only two sects (maths) deserving special notice, the others being unimportant and numerically incon-The first and most numerous of these sects is the Sakta math, the followers of which, without rejecting the Puráns, follow as their chief guide the principles inculcated in the Tantrás, which, according to tradition, were composed by Siva for the instruction of his wife Parvati, at the commencement of the Satyá Yug, or earliest age of Hindu mythological chronology. This sect is divided into three branches, - Divyabháv, Pasubháv, and Virbháv. Although the date of the compositon of the Tantras is assigned to a period of the remotest antiquity, the earliest historical personage who gained any celebrity in teaching and explaining its doctrines appears to have been Krishnanand, a Nadiyá Bráhman who lived about the middle of the sixteenth century. His doctrine, called Pasubháv or Dak-

shinachar, is that followed by the great majority of Bengali Brahmans belonging to the Sakta math. About the end of the sixteenth century, Brahmanandgiri, a Brahman of Maimansinh, preached the doctrines followed by the Virbhav branch of the sect. The second great sect (math) are the Vaishnays, who follow as their chief guides the works of the sage Vyasa. On this account the two sects are sometimes called respectively Tantriks and Vaidiks; but it must be observed that by far the greater part of the Bráhmans of Bengal who are called Vaidiks follow in reality the doctrines of the Tantrás. The principal religious work upon the Vaidik doctrines is the Sribhágvot. No religious teachers of any great note appear to have arisen among the followers of Vyásá until the time of Sankar. one of the great doctors of the Vaishnavs of Bengal, who founded the congregation (samprada) called Rudrá. Nearly contemporaneously with him lived Adáyanachárjyá, another celebrated Vaishnav Shortly following after these great doctors, another teacher appeared, named Vishnuswami, who taught doctrines which occasioned a schism in the sect. The congregation split into two bodies, called respectively Gyangu and Bhágyot, upon a difference of opinion respecting the materialization of the Deity,—one body maintaining that the Supreme Being is endowed with a material body, and the other rejecting this doctrine. Another branch is that which goes by the name of Sri-samprada, or holy congregation. The followers of this sect maintain that its doctrines were first taught in private by the goddess Lakshmí, wife of Náráyan (Krishna), and were handed down from one holy man to another, until they were made public to the world by Ramánujá, a great Vishnuvite reformer of the eleventh or twelfth century. The followers of the teachers of Ramánuiá are few in number in Rangour. Another and more important branch of the sect remains to be described. Madhav, a pupil of the great teacher Sankar, having differed with his master on a question relating to the seat of the soul, went to Badranáth, near the source of the Ganges, in order to consult the sage Vyásá. Madhav prayed to the image of Vyásá, whereupon the sage discovered himself. and instructed him in the doctrine which he afterwards taught. His followers maintain that this doctrine was first revealed by Náráyan (Vishnu in his form of Krishna) to Brahmá, and by him to Narad, by whom it was communicated to Vyásá. All the Goswamis or Gosains of Bengal belong to this branch. The three principal teachers of the doctrines held by them are, Chaitanya,

the great religious reformer, born at Nadíyá in 1484-85 A.D., and his disciples, Adwaitá and Nityánand. The latest congregation of this sect (math) was established by Nimbak, a Bráhman of the west of India, who promulgated his doctrines shortly after the time of Madhav. This congregation is usually called sanak samprádá, and its members Nimayik Vaishnavs. A few of them are scattered throughout Bengal, and there are two or three convents (ákrás) in Rangpur.

THE BRAHMA SAMAJ, or Theistical sect of Hindus, is said by the Collector to be making progress among the educated natives at the Civil Station and at Kánkiná, where a vernacular weekly paper, called the Rangpur Dik Prakás, advocates the cause of the sect. The Collector believes that although there are few who have (1871) openly avowed the doctrines of the Samáj, yet a real change in this respect is gradually being made in the town population. At present, however, the Samáj appears to have made no progress in the rural tracts. The Census Report of Bengal apparently includes the followers of the Bráhma Samáj with the general Hindu population of the District.

THE JAIN population appears to be confined to the Kyáhs or Márwárís who have settled in Rangpur, most of whom are wealthy merchants, carrying on a considerable trade in country produce and piece goods, or as money-lenders. The Census Report, in treating of the religious divisions of the people, does not separately indicate the Jains, but in its list of castes the number of Márwárí traders is set down at 67.

THE BUDDHISTS residing in Rangpur District consisted in 1872 of 46 males and 15 females; total, 61.

THE CHRISTIAN population of the District in 1872 amounted to 73 souls, namely, 36 males and 37 females. Missionary efforts have not made any progress in Rangpur. Deducting 41 from the total Christian population as the number of European, Eurasian, and Armenian Christians, there remains a balance of only 32 as representing the total native Christian population of the District.

DIVISION OF THE PEOPLE INTO TOWN AND COUNTRY.—The population of Rangpur is entirely rural. The Census Report returns only a single town as containing a population of five thousand souls or upwards, namely, Rangpur, with a total population of 14,845. This is not, properly speaking, a single town, but a municipality, comprising, besides the Civil Station of Rangpur,

the towns or villages of Mahiganj, Dhap, and Nawabganj. Details of the population of the municipality will be found below. tendency is perceptible on the part of the people towards town or city life. Mr. C. F. Magrath's District Census Compilation thus classifies the villages:-There are 1892 villages containing less than two hundred inhabitants; 1193 with from two to five hundred: 550 with from five hundred to a thousand; 368 small towns with from one to two thousand; 104 with from two to three thousand: 55 with from three to four thousand; 14 with from four to five thousand; 10 with from five to six thousand; 6 with from six to ten thousand; and 5 with from ten to fifteen thousand. Total, 4206. In this statement, however, all the large villages are mausas or groups of villages, and not separate towns. With the exception of Rangpur municipality, no town in the District contains a population exceeding five thousand souls.

RANGPUR, the Administrative Headquarters and principal Civil Station of the District, is situated on the north bank of the Chagát river, in 25° 44' 55" north latitude and 89° 17' 40" east longitude. The Rangpur municipality consists, besides the Civil Station, of the adjacent villages or towns of Mahiganj, Dháp, and Nawábganj, and contains a population of 14,845, according to the Census Report of 1872, classified as follows: - Muhammadans - males, 4577; and females, 3483: total, 8060. Hindus-males, 5277; and females, 1386: total, 6663. Christians-males, 25; and females, 27: total, 52. Others-males, 6; and females, 64: total, 70. Total of all denominations-males, 9985; and females, 4960. Grand total, 14.845. In 1870 the income of the municipality amounted to £,721, 85, 10d., and the expenditure to £618, 115, od. In 1871 the gross municipal income amounted to £643, 16s. od., and the expenditure to £581, 25. od ; average rate of taxation, 6 dunds and 11 pie, or 103d. per head of the municipal population.

MATERIAL CONDITION OF THE PLOPLE.—The great bulk of the population is composed of the lowest classes of Hindus and Muhammadans. They are described as indolent and superstitious, but their material condition has considerably improved of late years. The ordinary dress of a well-to-do shopkeeper consists of a dhull or waist-cloth, a cotton sheet or shawl (chiddar), and a pair of shoes. The clothing of an ordinary cultivator is nearly the same, except that he does not wear shoes, and the cotton is of a coarser quality. Bamboo matting, straw, and grass are the only materials VOL. VII.

used for house-building. A comfortable homestead usually consists of four apartments within a square enclosure, surrounded by a fence of woven bamboos or grass. A well-to-do cultivator would have two such enclosures for his dwelling, one being reserved for the female members of the family. The only furniture found in such a dwelling consists of common brass and pewter plates, cups, and pots for cooking and eating; a bamboo machan or platform, which serves as a bedstead; and a wooden chest. The ordinary food of the people, shopkeepers and agriculturists, is much the same, and consists chiefly of common rice, pulses, káchu (a species of yam), vegetables of different sorts, salt, oil, fish, and occasionally milk. Milk is more a luxury than an ordinary article of food. The Collector, in 1871. estimated the living expenses for an average-sized household of a well-to-do shopkeeper at about 10 rupees, or £1, per month, and the expenses of a similar family of ordinary peasants at 8 rupees, or 16s., a month. This latter amount, however, represents the cost which would be required if everything was purchased by the cultivator. As a matter of fact, the money cost is considerably less. His fields supply him with rice and vegetables, and most of the fish used for food is caught by himself or some member of his family.

HABITS OF THE PEOPLE.—The following paragraphs regarding the habits and social customs of the people of the District are condensed from Bábu Gopál Chandra Das' Report on the Statistics of Rangpur (1874). The cultivators, whether Hindus or Muhammadans, rise early in the morning, go to the fields and work till o o'clock, when they take a breakfast of cold rice. They then work on till I P.M., when they unyoke their cattle, and go themselves to take their day's bath. This done, they go home to dinner; and the rest of the day is spent in lounging about, doing little repairs to their houses, or in going to the nearest market village with the milk or vegetables which their cows or homestead land may yield them. No field work is done after I P.M., and the cultivators do not labour more than six hours a day. In the towns, the day-labourers work from 10 A.M. till 4 P.M. In the evening, another hot meal of rice is taken as supper, a portion being put aside for the next morning's cold breakfast. The women, besides cooking for the household, assist their husbands in husking the rice, rearing silk-worms, and, in the northern tracts of the District, in spinning and weaving gunny bags. The girls commence to work at nine years of age, and assist their mothers in the household duties. The boys at six or seven years

begin to tend the cows, and become labourers and ploughmen between twelve and sixteen. The average duration of a peasant's life is forty years.

CUSTOMS ON THE BIRTH OF A CHILD.—On the birth of a child, whether of a Hindu or Muhammadan family, great rejoicings take place. Rich men distribute alms to the Brahmans and the poor; the village barber and the midwife are liberally rewarded, and the priests are well paid for preparing the child's horoscope. The poorer classes give a sum varying from 4 dands to 1 rupee (6d. to 25.) to the midwife, and an equal amount to the barber and priest. On the fourth or sixth day after the birth of a child, the Muhammadans perform a ceremony called akeya, in which even the poorest peasant sacrifices a goat, offers a prayer, and weighs a hair of the child's head in gold, which he gives to the fakir. The Be-shara Musalmans distribute pan, betel-nuts, turmeric, and oil to their neighbours, friends, and relatives. The upper class of Hindus, on the sixth day after the birth of a child, celebrate a rite called sataripujá; and on the thirtieth day after birth, in the case of a Súdra, or the twenty-first day in the case of a Brahman, a ceremony called namákuran is performed. On both these occasions presents of Mn. betel-nut, oil, and turineric are made to the neighbours. In Muhammadan families, the ceremony of circumcision is performed by a class of men called Bangri, who are paid from 4 dands to 1 rupee (6d. to 2s.) for their services. A goat is slaughtered, prayers offered, relatives invited to a feast, and alms distributed to the poor. The Hindus perform the ceremony known as karnábede or earboring, on which occasion the father of the child makes an offering called nanimukh (an offering of cakes to appease the spirits of departed ancestors), and, if his circumstances enable him, invites his friends and neighbours to a feast. The ceremony of anná prasan. or feeding a child with rice for the first time, is performed in the sixth month after birth if a boy, and in the seventh month if a girl.

MARRIAGE CEREMONIES.—Among the higher classes of Hindus in this District, marriage contracts are made by relatives and friends, and not through ghataks or marriage registrars, as in the neighbourhood of Calcutta. After the dowry has been settled, the parents interchange visits to see the bridegroom and bride. The boy undergoes an examination; and the girl is made to speak and walk, for the purpose of ascertaining that she is neither dumb nor lame. In Brahman families the contract is reduced to writing; in families of

other castes, the contract is usually verbal, but the greater portion of the bride's dowry is paid by the bridegroom's family at the time of making the contract. On the day of the marriage, which takes place at night, the friends and relatives of the bridegroom, in the case of wealthy families, pass the day in feasting and in preparing for the procession at night. The procession is usually accompanied by fireworks and music. The Hindu marriage rites are performed by Brahman priests according to the Sastrals, and Sanskrit texts are read. The bride is taken away to her new home the day after the marriage ceremony. Among the lower classes of Hindus, the bridegroom pays a sum of from Rs. 30 to Rs. 50 (£3 to £5) for the girl to her father, and marries her either at his own house or at that of her father, generally at the latter. On occasion of marriages among his tenants, whether Hindus or Muhammadans, the zamindúr levies a tax called marcha, varying from 1 to 5 rupees (25. to 103.) in amount; this tax is paid by the bridegroom's party. The Be-Shárá Muhammadans are said to adopt almost all the marriage customs of the Hindus. Among the stricter Shara Muhammadans, the bridegroom, accompanied by a few friends and relatives, proceeds to the house of the bride's father. A proxy on the part of the bride settles her dowry, and the ceremony consists of the kázi or his deputy reading out the kálmá. The marriage thus finished is attested by two or three witnesses, and followed by a feast, after which the husband takes his wife away to his own house. are only met with in the south and east of the District, and these never attend lower-class Muhammadan marriages, which are usually performed by the village mullá or priest. The Musalmáns, however, are by no means restricted to the services of these men. In a company of five or more men, any one who can repeat the kálmá or form of marriage may be constituted a mullá for the occasion, and a valid marriage may be thus performed. The niki marriage of Muhammadans (marriage of a second or third wife during the lifetime of either the first or second), and the re-marriage of low-caste Hindu women, take place without much formality; but the samindar's marcha cess is always levied, and, the Collector states, is felt to be a great hardship. The charge of a kilsi for celebrating a marriage varies from one to five rupees (2s. to 10s.); a mulli from 2 dunis to 1 rupee (ad. to 2s.); and a Brahman from 1 to 6 rupees (2s. to 12s.). besides a share in the general feast. The barber also receives from 1 to 1 rupees (25, to 85.), according to the position in life of the parties.

FUNERAL OBSEQUIES.—On the death of a Hindu, the relatives and friends carry the body to the banks of a river, if sufficiently near at hand, or to a tank at some distance. The body is then washed, anointed with oil, dressed in a new cloth, and placed on a funeral pyre. The eldest of the heirs of the deceased present at the time sets fire to the pile, and the body is reduced to ashes. The bodies of Hindu infants less than five years of age are seldom burned, being generally buried or thrown into the nearest river. The Bairagis (a class of Vaishnay religious mendicants) bury their dead instead of burning them. The Rajbansis either bury or burn their dead, as they may think proper. On the fourth day after the death of a Hindu, his married daughters perform a ceremony known as chatarthi. On the eleventh day after the death of a Brahman, or the thirty-first day after the death of a Súdra, the funeral obsequies (sraddha) are performed by the eldest heir of the deceased. On the occasion of the death of a wealthy Hindu zamindar, particularly one dying in old age, great preparations are made for his sraddha. Learned pandits are invited from the Sanskrit schools of Nadiyá, and large presents are made to them. The poor of the surrounding country flock to receive alms; and relatives, friends, and neighbours are sumptuously fed. The Hindu peasantry are unable to expend much in these funeral obsequies, and the cost of the ceremony seldom exceeds 10 or 12 rupees (f_{i} 1 to f_{i} 1, 4s. od.). Among the Muhammadans, the body is first washed, anointed with perfumes, dressed in new cloth, and then carried to the burial-ground by the assembled relatives and friends. In the case of a rich man a coffin is used. The grave is dug seven and a half feet long, four and a half feet broad, and four and a half deep, the body being laid in the ground with the face turned towards the sacred city of Mecca. After a few prayers have been read, a bamboo roof is placed above the body, and the grave filled in with earth.

ASTROLOGY AND AUSPICIOUS DAYS.—The people, whether Hindus or Muhammadans, never commence any important work without first consulting the stars, and finding out the most auspicious moment for the undertaking. The pandits in the towns, and in the rural villages the gram purohit, or priest of the hamlet, fix the auspicious periods for the Hindu peasants to plough and sow their lands. Muhammadan astrologers are very few in number; and in tracts where there are none, the Musalmán cultivators generally ask the Hindu astronomers to name their auspicious days. A class of

Bráhmans called ojhás pretend to possess a supernatural influence over the hailstorms; and the ignorant peasants, believing that they have the power to avert such a calamity, pay the ojhás small sums to protect their fields from destruction by hail. At the commencement of each year, the village astrologer (achárjyá) visits every house to read out the new almanac, and explain to the peasantry the deities who will reign over the harvest, etc., for the year. In return he receives a small measure of rice and half an daná (three farthings) in cash. To astrology the achárjyá adds fortune-telling, for which, of course, he receives an additional reward from those that consult him.

INDIGENOUS VILLAGE OFFICIALS.—Few vestiges now remain in Rangpur District of the ancient indigenous village corporations of the days of the Hindu monarchy; and the few rural officials still met with are now rather servants of the samindars or landholders, than officers having a common interest in the prosperity of the village. The status of these village communes in the days of the Hindu kings is thus described by Bábu Gopál Chandra Das. Deputy-Collector, in his Report on the Statistics of Rangpur:-Every village had its own government, court of justice, and council. The thákur (proprietor of the village) was the president of the meeting: the village Brahman was the priest and expounder of the law; the patroiri was the accountant and correspondence clerk; the chaukidár was the village watchman; the mardhá acted as surveyor, and distributed the produce of the land between landlord and tenant; the châmar supplied the villagers with shoes, and his wife acted as midwife; the carpenters made the ploughs for the cultivators, and the blacksmith the iron implements of industry; the washerman and potter had also their place in the community. Nor were charitable institutions forgotten, for every village had a building set apart for the reception and entertainment of strangers. When the harvest was ready for reaping, the thákur received onetenth of the produce as his sovereign right in the land; a small portion of the produce of every field was laid aside for charitable and hospitable institutions; the village Brahman, the patrodri. chaukidar, mardhá, carpenter, blacksmith, and chámár had each of them his share in the produce, the proportion being regulated according to the extent and value of his assistance to the community. In case of any complaint, the elders of the village convened a meeting, and summoned the offender to take his trial before

a jury of his own class, comprising also the village head-men, and summarily disposed of the case then and there.'

Existing VILLAGE OFFICERS.—The ancient village communes have long since died away; and although many of the officials named above are still found, at least in name, they are in nearly every case merely the servants of the zamindárs. The following account of the present status and duties of these officers is quoted in a condensed form from Bábu Gopál Chandra Das' report, above cited:—

THE PATWARI is a servant of the samindur, and is paid by him. In large estates he serves under the gumáshtá or táhsíldár, but in netty zamindáris he collects the rent himself. Instead of receiving a share of the produce of the land, he is now remunerated either by a slight percentage on the collections, or by a fixed money payment. The palwaris are generally natives of the District, and the post is usually hereditary; in special cases, however, they are succeeded by outsiders. On the death of a patrouri, his eldest son is usually nominated to the vacant post by the zamindir, subject to the approval of the villagers. The duties of a patadri are multifarious. He keeps the accounts of every field, and knows the history of its occupant; he knows the nature of the soil and the productive power of every little patch of land. At the end of every year he sends to his master an account statement known as jamá-wasil-baki, showing the total demand, amount actually collected, and balance still remaining due for every separate holding, together with extra collections or cesses under heads denominated saver, abwib, and mathat. The rent-roll kept by the patauri is called dudhu-jamu-He is the zamindar's principal witness whenever a suit takes place between the proprietor and his tenants, whether for enhancement of rent or the recovery of arrears.

THE GUMASHTA is another village officer of the zamindar, but superior in rank to the pataciri. His duty is to collect the rents, grant receipts to the cultivators, and to remit the collections at stated periods to the revenue court (kachári) of the zamindár. Where the zamindár retains land in his own hands as a home farm, the gumáshtá has to see to its proper cultivation. He looks after the ploughmen and cattle, superintends the harvesting and storing of the crops, etc. If the zamindár is also a grain merchant or money-lender, it is through the gumáshtá that he carries on the business. In the event of a cultivator deserting his village, it is the gumáshtá's duty to see that his fields are let out to another. He also keeps a

separate account of his master's monetary transactions with which the patrodri has no concern. When a portion of the samindar's lands are held on a tenure called bhág, in which the cultivator instead of paying a money rental gives a share of the produce, the gumáshtá has to see that a proper division of the crop is made. He is remunerated by a money salary, varying from Rs. 5 to Rs. 6 (10s. to 125.) a month; in addition to which, he also receives certain perquisites called parbani, and a feast on the occasion of every marriage in the village. He also occasionally conducts rent suits on behalf of the zamindár. His other duties are public ones. According to the Regulation Law, the gumáshtá was to give early information at the nearest police station of the resort to, or passage through, his village of any considerable body of strangers, together with any information he might be able to collect as to the alleged object of the assemblage or journey, or any suspicions which might arise as to their real character and intentions. At present, section 90 of Act x. of 1872 (B.C.) prescribes it as a duty of the village officials, including the gumashta, head-man, and watchman, forthwith to communicate to the nearest Magistrate, or officer in charge of the nearest police station, any information which they may obtain respecting-1st, the residence of any notorious receiver or vendor of stolen property in the village; 2d, the resort of persons suspected to be thieves; 3d, the commission or intention to commit sati or other non-bailable offence at or near the village; 4th, the occurrence of any sudden or unnatural death.

THE CHAUKIDAR is the village watchman, and is paid by the cultivators. He is nominated by the villagers and appointed by the Magistrate. He receives annually from 4 to 12 dnuds (6d. to 1s. 6d.) from each house as his fee or allowance, is armed with a spear, and wears a badge as a token of his service. The zamindars do not contribute anything to his support; nor does he hold any service land in lieu of or supplementary to his money wages received from the villagers. These wages are not regularly paid, and, when realized, the amount is insufficient for his maintenance and the proper discharge of his work. Whenever the villagers neglect to pay him, he complains to the darogd (Sub-Inspector) at the police station to which he is attached, who assists him in the collection of his dues. In the larger villages an improved rural constabulary has been established under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856, and the chaukidars are paid a fixed salary from the proceeds of the tax realized under the Act.

THE PRADHAN is the village head-man. He assists the saminder in the collection of rent, acts as a member of a panchiral or village arbitration court in settling petty boundary disputes or minor cases, etc. 'The chaukidar brings every occurrence first to the notice of the pradhan; and if it appears to the latter to be of an important or serious nature, he directs the chaukidar to lay the case before the thanddar or regular police officer. In fact, if any trace can now be found of the ancient Hindu village system, it is in this official. The appointment of pradhán is hereditary, and only elective in the case of the death of the holder of the post without heirs. In olden days, these pradhúns or head-men, called by different names in other Districts, were very important and influential representatives of the village. In all matters of importance they were consulted, as intelligent men interested in the welfare of the community. At the present day, these officials lend their assistance in the performance of all public business in the villages to which they belong. Houses are always searched in their presence, and they attest the service of every judicial process. Whenever a cess is levied by a zamindar or a perquisite demanded by his officers, they serve as mediators, and settle the amount on behalf of the villagers. In case of sudden or unnatural death, the police officers as a rule conduct the inquiry in their presence. The pradhans are not mere dependants on the samindurs, but act semi-independently of their authority.

SARDARS, PAIKS, AND KOTWALS are zamindári officers employed as collectors, guards, and orderlies. They escort rents from the villages to the zamindár's principal revenue court (kachári), and are paid usually from Rs. 2 to Rs. 3 (4s. to 6s.) per month. In some places they receive service lands in lieu of cash payment, the quantity of land awarded to each man being sufficient to yield a maintenance for himself and family.

PARAMANIKS AND BUSNIAHS are rather servants of the zamindars than independent members of the village community. They are paid by the zamindars, and it is their duty to assist the gumdshtds and patwaris in the collection of rent.

SUPERIOR ZAMINDARI OFFICERS.—In addition to the village officials above enumerated, large samindars have generally an establishment consisting of a naib, a karkun or peshkar, a jamanavish, a record-keeper, a parkhai, and several muharrirs. The naib, as the factor of the samindar and head of his establishment, makes the settlement with the villagers, fixes the rent, grants leases, checks

the accounts of the patudris and gumáshtás, and in every respect acts as the representative of the absent proprietor. The kárkun or peshkár is his deputy. The jamá-navish is the accountant of all receipts and disbursements; he also checks the accounts of the patuáris and gumáshtás. The duties of the record-keeper are explained by his English designation. The parkhái examines and counts the money, and the muharrirs act as correspondence clerks. These officials receive, in addition to liberal salaries, nazars or presents from the tenants and farmers. At the end of the year they generally receive a bonus from their employers, and also on occasions of wedding and funeral ceremonies.

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS.—In the following section, in addition to the information specially supplied to me by the Assistant-Collector, Mr. Crawford, in 1871, and published as Appendix C to Mr. Glazier's Report on the District of Rangpur, I have to acknowledge my indebtedness to Bábu Gopál Chandra Das, the special Deputy-Collector appointed by the Bengal Government to collect agricultural statistics for Rangpur, whose excellent report, dated 15th November 1873, and since officially published, has been of the greatest assistance to me. I regret that I am unable in every case to quote his own words within inverted commas, but I have had to economize space by combining the information contained in the Deputy-Collector's report with that specially furnished to me by Mr. Crawford.

RICE forms the staple crop of Rangpur District. Two principal crops are sown and reaped during the year, namely, the dus or bahi or autumn rice, and the dman or haimantik or cold-weather rice. These two great genera are both divided into different species, and these again are subdivided into very many varieties.

AUS OF AUTUMN RICE is divided into three species, — káinán áus dhán, áus dhán, and jáli áus dhán. (a) The first-named species grows best on high-lying lands. The seed is sown broadcast on high rich lands, from which crops of sugar-cane, tobacco, and mustard have been obtained. The twenty-eight principal varieties of káinán áus dhán are returned as follow:—(1) Jogi talai; (2) thukri; (3) sáil ikhri; (4) kanchanoni; (5) kasiá panj; (6) jabar sáil; (7) phárásh dumrá; (8) bil káchái; (9) kalá garphá; (10) khái chángá; (11) pákshiráj; (12) kaitar mani; (13) thukri dumá; (14) boaildár; (15) gariá; (16) chhotá káshni; (17) dhola garphá, (18) ikhri; (19) pipli bhang; (20) dholá kanchái; (21) bhadai malshirá; (22) cheng dumrá; (23) phul ganjiá; (24) kantai; (25)

dakshiná; (26) sona-mai; (27) chatrál; and (28) patharturi. This species of rice is sown in Chaitra and Baisákh (April and May), and reaped in Bhadra and Aswin (August and September). (b) The second species, aus dhan, grows best on ordinary land, neither too high nor too low. It is usually sown broadcast in Phálgun (February-March), on lands from which a crop of winter rice has been obtained, and reaped in Ashar and Sraban (June-August). Its fifty-five principal varieties are returned as follow:-(1) Ghani dumrá; (2) mamráj khani; (3) lakshmi áchul; (4) chhailan; (5) khágrá cháng; (6) nelpái; (7) pháráshi chápál; (8) balrám; (9) málá dumrá; (10) kái jor; (11) sáil thukrí; (12) chitri: (13) dakshiná dumrá: (14) bhátsá garphá, (15) kumriá; (16) binni; (17) chiná dali; (18) báigun bichhi; (19) kásiá panj. (20) atiá ; (21) dál-sundri ; (22) sukhti dumrá ; (23) kátáriá ; (24) bakri; (25) dhubri; (26) áus gánjiá; (27) jhápái; (28) hográ; (29) kumrá chápál; (30) bir madni; (31) sukhi dumrá; (32) chápál, (33) nirábakri ; (34) sarishá phul ; (35) kátáliá ; (36) churi ; (37) gotáhari bakri; (38) cheng máguri; (39) dumeá, (40) kárái; (41) páráshi; (42) áus malshirá; (43) dáirká sáil; (44) dáriú; (45) saná; (46) jabgariá; (47) sáil poná; (48) bara málliká; (49) ghushri; (50) nilájí; (51) ganjiá; (52) garifhá; (53) gorá dumrá, (54) thukri; and (55) kuchni. (c) The third species of dus rice, juli dus dhun, requires a low moist soil, and is generally sown in Magh and Phalgun (January-March), in the beds of rivers and marshes, and reaped in Ashar and Srában (June-August). A crop of aman or winter rice is often sown in the same field with jali aus, and at the same time. The dman rice springs up after the removal of the dus crop, being brought forward by the rains, and a second crop is also obtained at the time of the usual winter harvest. The twenty principal varieties of jáli dus are-(1) Dhál dumrá; (2) katki ; (3) amlái ; (4) kushi dumá ; (5) lakshni dumá ; (6) tharangá ; (7) málá dumá; (8) ratni; (9) kálá chápál; (10) kálá dumá; (11) bhushrí; (12) bhálái; (13) áus jashoa; (14) keshálí; (15) chhaitan dumá ; (16) játá ; (17) áus bachi ; (18) dhemshi ; (19) kajál gauri , and (20) dudhiá hotái.

AMAN RICE forms the great winter rice crop of the District. It is divided into two species,—ropá or royá dhán, which is transplanted; and buná, boná, or bhuiyá, which is sown broadcast.

(a) The ropá or transplanted áman rice is sown in the first instance upon high land. When the seedlings are about a foot high, after the

early rains have moistened the soil, they are gradually transplanted to marshy lands covered by about ten inches of water. In the eastern part of the District, between the Tistá, Dharlá, and Brahmaputra rivers, a variation is often introduced into the cultivation, and the rice is transplanted twice. First, when the shoots are about a foot high, they are transplanted into high dry land, which is well manured and weeded. When about two feet high, they are re-transplanted to wet, marshy soil. This practice is said to render the plants more hardy, and to save seed, the shoots from a single grain being often divided into nine or ten plants. This doubly transplanted rice is called gáchhi dhán. Ropá dhán is sown in the months of Chaitra, Baisákh, and Jaishthá (March-June), transplanted in Srában and Bhadrá (July-September), and reaped in Agrahayan and Paush (November-January). In cases where the plant is transplanted twice, the first transplantation takes place a little earlier; the second transplanting goes on in Aswin and Kartik (August-October). The peasantry enumerate no less than a hundred and seventy varieties of ropá rice, as follow:-(1) Málshirá; (2) kachu dumá; (3) shátiyá; (4) dhepá; (5) motá gánjiá; (6) chhotá gánjá; (7) tilkáphur; (8) ukhni madhu; (9) bindhi pákri; (10) jashoá; (11) shul kumár; (12) bará-páni sáil; (13) bág jhul; (14) sáo báz; (15) kátá sáo báz; (16) khirshá pát; (17) halida jáon; (18) mugi málshirú; (19) kcoú; (20) lohá-dang; (21) kánái-bánsi; (22) japhar; (23) mão dum; (24) kalam dhepi; (25) chhotá-páni sáil: (26) syám-rás; (27) pará málshirá; (28) binna phul; (29) harisankar; (30) shujni; (31) sáil jashoá; (32) phul gánjiá; (33) cheng mágurí; (34) boatí kandi sáo; (35) kálijirá; (36) báchí; (37) kartik sáil; (38) kada pákrí; (39) harin panjor; (40) tulá panj; (41) kálá máná; (42) matak sáil; (43) kánch kalash; (44) kái sáil; (45) mandigirí; (46) turá málshirá; (47) rasul bhog; (48) cati kandi súo; (49) chini bhog; (50) bara gánjiá; (51) katra jashoá; (52) purá mágri; (53) narikel jhuki; (54) syámráj; (55) jafar nádam; (56) bangál dariá; (57) sankar mukhi; (58) gajál gáriá; (59) kansá-har; (60) janak rái; (61) dal kochrá; (62) mái; (63) khumni málshirá; (64) sundri; (65) jákhor; (66) pákhri; (67) khirshá; (68) pakshiráj; (69) ashambrá; (70) jul-juli; (71) nuli; (72) atiá dhepá; (73) boú pakhri; (74) bir madli; (75) aswini; (76) somás-jali; (77) gajál gáriá; (78) bhog bágrá; (79) harin-khol; (80) dhub-ráj; (81) dhensi; (82) asal súil; (83) bansi; (84) sindur katud; (85) dhalá bachí; (86) kálá bachi; (87) burá harin; (88) beto; (89) gájiá; (90) parbat jirá;

(91) kálá mái; (92) bhog-jirá; (93) náo jirá; (94) katáir bhog; (95) mau bhanj; (96) bakur; (97) bawii bhog; (98) dudh kalam; (99) báns pátárí; (100) amhí; (101) chipikáli; (102) singáriá; (103) bins-phul; (104) bágrá; (105) aliá; (106) baruni; (107) bau duláli; (108) bura bákur; (109) chápí; (110) dol kalam; (111) gujrí; (112) haldiú bachí; (113) harin kajliú; (114) harni; (115) húti jhul; (116) indra sáil; (117) jagannáth bhog; (118) kalái jirá; (119) khirshá bhog; (120) lúl bachi; (121) madhu súil; (122) narikel phul: (123) pánáti; (124) phul pákri; (125) sáilná, (126) syamlál; (127) ránduní págal; (128) sil kumár; (129) ráj bhog; (130) kálá sáilná; (131) dhalá sáilná; (132) krishna churá; (133) bit pikur. (134) kálá pákri; (135) anjoná; (136) pát madái; (137) kánkuá. (138) pání sáil; (139) elái; (140) patí sáil; (141) sengariá; (142) sind mái; (143) bará jashoú; (144) chhotá jashoú, (145) bent, (146) dhol; (147) nerá bachi; (148) khodni; (149) háthi dánt, (150) subarná kharga; (151) háthi; (152) chandan churá; (153) báigun bichhi; (154) paiá musuri; (155) udái gauri málshirá, (156) khái chur; (157) baj não: (158) kharag muti, (159) pátesteári, (160) pári jál; (161) charái tuti; (162) kol dumá; (163) deb kanyá, (164) dudh shar; (165) bar; (166) subarná jashoá; (167) pákri málshirá. (168) báman bho, (169) shápahár, and (170) surjvá ujáil. (b) The second or broadcast species of aman rice is sown in the beds of marshes and rivers in the months of Phálgun and Chaitra (February-April), and reaped in Agrahayan and Paush (November -January). This rice is frequently sown in the same field with the aus rice mentioned above. The growth of the plant keeps pace with the rising of the water in the marshes during the ramy season, the stem sometimes growing to a length of twelve feet. This species of rice is not very extensively cultivated. Its twenty-two principal varieties are returned as follow: -(1) Miguri; (2) belo, (3) chiphkáli; (4) singariá; (5) amlá kánsá; (6) kándi sáo, (7) khalisání bet ; (8) kálimáná ; (9) phul kánsá ; (10) muriá ; (11) bángál dáriá , (12) abáli; (13) kánsáhárá; (14) kúnsú: (15) chándú; (16) dáns. (17) khorá; (18) agurpát; (19) chengá, (20) aswiná, (21) pathar nuti ; and (22) thákurbin.

RICE CULTIVATION.—Ans rice land receives from three to five ploughings before it is ready to receive the seed, and two ploughings after sowing, the second of these ploughings being in a transverse direction to the first. The harrow and drill is passed over the fields after each ploughing, and, where necessary, the clods are

broken with a mallet. A single pair of bullocks can plough from 8 to 10 káthás (from two-fifths to one-half of a bighá), harrow from 2 to 21 bighds (say two-thirds of an acre), and drill from 1 to 11 bighds (about one-third of an acre), in a day. When the young shoots are about a foot high, the crop is weeded twice; six labourers in one day can weed a bighá (one-third of an acre) of land. After the crop is cut, it is bound into sheaves or bundles, and carried to the threshing floor, where it is trodden out by cattle. Four oxen can tread out in a day the crop of one bighá of land. The straw is kept to serve as fodder for the cattle. Fourteen or fifteen sers of seed are required for one bighá of land (equal to 84 to 90 lbs. avoirdupois per acre); and the average out-turn varies from 5 to 7 maunds of unhusked rice per bigha, or from 11 to 154 hundredweights per acre. After the aus crop has been cut, the cultivators re-sow the fields with a cold-weather crop of mustard, potato, garlic. or pulse, if the land is dry.' When the fields are still moist after the dus has been cut, it is re-sown with a winter crop of dman rice. Aman rice land requires three or four ploughings before sowing or transplanting, but none afterwards. Two or three harrowings are quite sufficient. The out-turn is from 5 to 7 maunds of paddy per bighá, or from 11 to 15% hundredweights per acre; which, after husking, yields from 31 to 4 maunds of cleaned rice per bighá, or from 71 to 81 hundredweights per acre. In ordinary years the value of common rice varies from R. 1 to Rs. 1. 12 per maund, or from 2s. 8d. to 4s. 9d. per hundredweight. In most cases the tenants retain the dus rice for their own consumption, and pay their rent and living expenses by the sale of the dman or winter rice, and the cold-weather crops of vegetables, pulses, and oil-seeds. roughly estimated that in ordinarily good years about one-half of the rice crops of Rangpur is consumed by the local population, and that the rest is exported to other Districts. Rice cultivation has rapidly extended of late years. The Collector, in 1871, stated that the increase of rice-bearing lands during the previous thirty years might be safely set down at 75 per cent. No such improvement, however, has taken place in the productive powers of the land, which, according to the Collector, are generally believed to have considerably deteriorated.

THE NAMES OF THE RICE PLANT in the different stages of its growth are as follow:—Bij or bichhan, the seed; also applied to the seedling plant intended for transplantation. Bichhan patan, the ger-

minated aman seed before sowing. Tulá mathuá, the sprouting seed when first visible above the ground. Bardi kintli, young sprouts four inches high and of a reddish colour. Aulgani, the sprout in the green stage before expansion. Pátá phulá, the same when it has expanded. Do-pital, the fully-developed sprout. Pital, seedlings nearly fit for transplanting. Neochá bichhán, the shoots iust before transplanting. Gochi bichhain, shoots after they have been transplanted on to high lands, until they are afterwards re-transplanted into marshy soil. Dhán gáchhi, clumps of five or six seedlings transplanted in low marshy lands. Thepin, clumps of eight or ten plants from one root. Gámar, the same, when the shoots have become thick and large. Kanch thur, the plant when it first comes to ear. Gol phulá, the stem below the leaves when it swells out. Phulán, spreading of the ear. Dudh bhará, when milk forms in the ear. Kálá paká, the ripening plant when of the colour of a plantain. Purá pakú, the plant when fully ripe. Dhán, unhusked rice. Ushná chánl, rice husked after the paddy has been first boiled and dried. Atáp chául, rice husked after the paddy has been simply dried in the sun. Chául, husked rice. This, the husk. Khud, fragments of rice broken in husking.

THE DIFFERENT PREPARATIONS MADE FROM RICE are the following:-Bhát, boiled rice. Churá or chirá, paddy first steeped in water, then partially parched and husked, after which it is beaten flat in the rice pedal; sold at about 10 pie per ser, or ad. per pound. Khái or lái, paddy parched over a fire in sand until the husk breaks, and then husked; price 1 anna 5 pie a ser, or 1d. per pound. Muri, paddy twice boiled and dried in the sun, then husked, afterwards wetted with salt and water, and parched in hot sand; price 1 ánná 4 pie per ser, or 1d. per pound. Nurki, khái mixed with molasses and boiled; price 3 annais 8 pie per ser, or 22d. per pound. Malá, muri mixed with molasses and made up into balls; price 1 ánná 10 pie per ser, or 13d. a pound. Chául bhájá, roasted rice; price not mentioned. Pithá, rice flour mixed with sweets of various sorts, and made into cakes; price varies according to the ingredients. Panthá bhát, rice mixed with water, and left standing over night till it becomes sour; eaten cold for breakfast; not sold. Pachavái, or rice beer. Deno mad or desi sharab, spirits distilled from pachwai; sells at Rs. 1. 2. 0 (28. 3d.) and Rs. 1. 14. 0 (3s. 9d.) per imperial quart, according to strength.

WHEAT is not much cultivated in Rangpur District, and the soil,

being low and damp, is not suitable to the crop. The land requires five or six ploughings and as many harrowings before it is ready for sowing. No weeding is necessary. The seed is sown in September and October, and the crop reaped in March or April. Five sers of seed are needed for one kighá of land (30 lbs. to an acre); the out-turn, however, seldom exceeds 2 maunds a bighá, or 4½ hundredweights an acre. Wheat ordinarily sells at from Rs. 3 to Rs. 4 a maund (8s. 2d. to 10s. 11d. a hundredweight), the flour, of course, being proportionately dearer. The extent of land under this crop is estimated by the Deputy-Collector at 35,110 acres, and the out-turn at 245,770 maunds, or 179,938 hundredweights. The local consumption, however, exceeds this amount, the balance being imported from other Districts where the soil is better suited to the crop.

OATS are sown in September and October, and reaped in March or April; but there is very little cultivation of this crop in Rangpur, the soil being unsuitable. The market price of oats varies from Rs 2. to Rs. 3. 8. o a maund, or from 5s. 5d. to 9s. 7d. a hundredweight.

OTHER CEREAL CROPS.—Barley is cultivated, but only to a small extent. Sown in September and October, and reaped in March or April. Like wheat, it requires to be grown on dry high lands. Kaun or kangá, a species of millet (Panicum Italicum), is grown on moist, but not marshy, low lands. It is extensively cultivated on some of the Brahmaputra chars. Sown in February and March, and reaped in May and June. Chind, another species of millet (Panicum milaceum), also requires a somewhat moist soil, Sown in January and February, and reaped in April and May. The land in which this and the foregoing crop are grown requires five or six ploughings and as many harrowings if hard soil, and two or three if light. The processes of reaping, threshing, and husking are the same as with rice. The out-turn varies from 3 to 4 maunds per bighd, or from 61 to 82 hundredweights per acre. The price of the grain is usually from R. 1 to Rs. 1. 4. o per maund, or from 25. 8d. to 3s. 5d. a hundredweight.

PULSES AND GREEN CROPS.—Musuri (Ervum lens) is sown in October and November, and cut in March and April. The crop is generally sown in the same field with mustard, and yields an average out-turn of from 1\(\frac{1}{2}\) to 2 maunds per bighá, or from 4 to 4\(\frac{1}{2}\) hundredweights per acre, the produce being worth about Rs. 5 a maund, or 13s. 8d. a hundredweight. Khesári (Lathyrus sativus) is sown on high dry land in October and November, and cut in March and April.

The out-turn varies from 11 to 2 maunds per bighd, or from 31 to 41 hundredweights per acre, of the ordinary value of Rs. 4 a maund, or 10s. 11d. a hundredweight. Arhar (Cajanus Indicus), sown in April and May, and cut about March in the following year. In Rangour it is not usually treated as a regular crop, being generally sown on high lands in the same field with dus rice. Average produce, 21 maunds per bigha, or 51 hundredweights per acre, of the ordinary value of Rs. 4 a maund, or 10s. 11d. a hundredweight. Mug (Phaseolus mungo). Three varieties of this pulse are grown in Rangpur District. -sond mug, krishna mug, and ghord mug,-all being sown on high dry land in October and November, and cut in March and April. They are very little cultivated in Rangpur District. The value of the produce varies from Rs. 5 to Rs. 6 per maund, or from 13s. 8d. to 16s. 4d. a hundredweight. Kaldi (Phaseolus mungo, var. melanospermus). Four varieties, namely, thikri kaldi, más kalái, boro kaldi, and kunti kaldi, all sown on high lands in July and August. and cut in October and November. Very little labour is involved in the cultivation, and the crop grows on inferior lands. Average out-turn, from 1 to 11 maunds per bighd, or from 2 to 31 hundredweights per acre, worth from Rs. 3. 8. o. to Rs. 4 per maund, or from 9s. 7d. to 10s. 11d. a hundredweight. Dhalá bunt and lál bunt, two common varieties of pulse, sown on high dry lands in October and November, and cut in March and April. Matar, or peas (Pisum sativum), sown in September and October, and gathered in March and April; not cultivated as a separate crop, but sown in the áman rice fields when they dry up at the close of the rainy season. The out-turn varies from 1 to 11 maunds per bighd, or from 2 to 31 hundredweights per acre, worth about Rs. 3. 8. o a maund, or 92. 7d. a hundredweight.

OIL-SEEDS.—Sarishá, or mustard (Sinapis dichotoma), consisting of three varieties, namely, rdi sarishá, mághí sarishá, and sentá sarishá, is grown all over Rangpur District, especially in Baharband and Bhitárband parganás. The crop is sown in October and November, and cut in February and March. The land requires to be ploughed and harrowed eight times before sowing; one weeding is sufficient. Mustard is generally sown alone as a second crop on dus lands after the rice has been cut; it is sometimes, however, sown along with musuri on high lands. The average produce varies from 2 to 2½ maunds per bighá, or from 4½ to 5½ hundredweights per acre, worth from Rs. 4 to Rs. 5 per maund, or from 10s. 11d. to 13s. 8d. per VOL VII.

hundredweight. The area under mustard cultivation in Rangpur District is returned at 73,145 acres, and the total produce at 438.870 maunds, or 31,348 hundredweights. Well-to-do cultivators pay their rent by the sale of this produce, keeping their rice and other crops for home consumption. Til (Sesamum orientale) is of two varieties, -krishna til and raktil or aus til. The first-named variety is sown in August and September, and cut in November and December. It thrives best on high dry land, and is sown either singly or along with thikri kalái. The land requires to be ploughed four times and harrowed twice before sowing. In good years the produce varies from 11 to 2 maunds per bigha, or from 31 to 41 hundredweights per acre, the price being the same as for mustard. The second variety, raktd or dus til, is only cultivated on a very small scale in Rangour. Sown in January and February, and cut in May and June. The value of the crop is nearly equal to that of mustard. Erenda putra, or castor-oil (Ricinus communis). This is not usually sown in fields, but planted around the homesteads and boundary-lines as a fence. A kind of silk-worm is fed on the leaves, and oil is expressed from the stalk. Sown in November and December, and the leaves gathered from March till June.

FIBRES.—Koshtá, or jute (Corchorus olitorius). Rangpur is noted for its jute cultivation. The plant thrives well throughout the District, but is cultivated most extensively on the banks and islands of the Brahmaputra and Tista. It is sown in April and May, and cut in August and September. The land requires from six to seven ploughings; as many harrowings are required before the seed is put into the ground, and two weedings afterwards. The first weeding takes place when the plants are a foot above the ground, and the second when they are 21 feet high. Each field is weeded in a single day, as the plants thrive so fast after the weeding that the slightest delay causes an inequality in the growth. The cultivators make an arrangement among themselves to assist each other in weeding, instead of engaging hired labour for the purpose. Excessive rains spoil the crop; and the superfluous water has to be drained off by narrow channels cut across the fields. The plants cease to grow any higher when they branch out at the top and commence to flower. When cut, they are kept under water during a fortnight for decomposition. When quite decomposed, they are taken out, and the fibre separated from the stalks by beating; after which it is well washed. Two classes of jute are grown,—one called parbati, which is of

superior quality, strong texture, and of a light reddish colour; and ide pde, the fibre of which is of a somewhat inferior quality and of a whitish colour. The average out-turn of jute in good soils varies from 3 to 4 maunds per bighá, or from 61 to 82 hundredweights per acre; in the vicinity of Pirgani, however, where the soil is not so favourable, the produce is from 2 to 21 maunds per bighi, or from 41 to 51 hundredweights per acre. The marketable value of the produce in 1872-73 varied from Rs. 1. 8. o to Rs. 1. 10. o per maund, or from 4s. 1d. to 4s. 5d. per hundredweight, showing a considerable falling off from previous years. Jute is sold by the cultivators in every village market to paikars (brokers) and agents, who export it to Calcutta and Siráigani. The bulk of the jute grown in Rangpur is exported in its raw state; but some is also woven into gunny bags, or used in paper manufacture. A little inferior jute is retained by the cultivators for their own purposes. The quantity of land under jute cultivation in Rangpur is returned at 117,569 acres, and the estimated total out-turn at 1,058,121 maunds, or 774,695 hundredweights. Jute which is sown in March and cut in July is called dus or early jute, and is of inferior quality to the dman or late jute, which is sown in April or May and cut in August or September. Aus jute is generally cultivated on low, and dman on high lands. The land best suited to the growth of jute is a medium soil, neither too low nor too high; in very low lands the plant suffers from excessive inundations, while on very high lands it suffers to an equal extent from want of sufficient moisture. Meshtá (Hibiscus cannabinus), a coarse description of jute, is little grown in Rangpur District. The best native paper is made from this fibre, which is also used to adulterate the genuine jute. Son, or hemp (Crotolarea juncea), is sown on high dry land from October to December, and cut from February to April. The mode of cultivation adopted is the same as for jute; the process of extracting the fibre only differs in that the plant is steeped in water for a much shorter time, and the stalks are broken into pieces before the fibre is separated by hand. Kankhurd, or China grass (Rhea), grows wild in many parts of the District, especially on the chars of the Brahmaputra. The fibre, which is very strong and durable, is chiefly used for making fishing nets. Kápás, or cotton (Gossypium herbaceum), is sown in March and April, and gathered in December and January, but the cultivation is very limited.

TUBEROUS PLANTS.—Vilayati álu, or English potato (Solanum

tuberosum), sown in September and October, and dug up in February and March. Before sowing, the field is well manured with cowdung, house sweepings, bamboo ashes, and decaying deposits of reeds from large swamps; it also undergoes eight or ten ploughings and as many harrowings. The seed potatoes are planted on ridges or mounds of earth, raised a foot above the surface of the field in parallel lines, and carefully kept in repair. The crop is once weeded. Four maunds of seed are required for one bighá of land, equal to 83 hundredweights per acre. The out-turn varies from 30 to 35 maunds per bighd, or from 65 to 76 hundredweights per acre. The value varies from 12 annas to Rs. 1. 4. 0 a maund, or from 2s. old. to 3s. 5d. a hundredweight. Potato cultivation has much extended since it was first introduced into the District some thirty or forty years ago, but I am unable to give the total area under this crop. Large quantities of Rangpur potatoes are exported to the neighbouring District of Bogra, where the soil is said to be unsuited to the cultivation. Many varieties of the yam tribe are cultivated in Rangpur. Ol (Arum companulatum) and man (Arum Indicum). sown in the months of October and November, and dug up in the corresponding months of the following year. Not cultivated in fields, but generally planted in and around the homesteads. Baija káchu, manyi álu, purd ot gol álu, dhobá pát álu, háli puoya álu, gojá dlu, kshirsá bhog álu, machh álu, and bundariyá or tepát álu are all varieties of the yam tribe, sown in and about the homesteads between November and January, and generally dug up in the corresponding months of the next year. Kántá álu, or prickly potato, thrives well on a high light soil; sown in October and November, and dug up in the following September and October. Sek álu or sakar kand, or sweet potato (red Convolvulus batatas), and dhalá sakar kand (white Convolvulus batatas). These are also grown on high light lands; sown in October and November, and dug up between January and March. The other varieties of sweet potato are. atiyá káchu, megh lál káchu, billi káchu, and bánsphul káchu, all cultivated in high light soils, planted in March and April, and dug up in October and November. Adrak, or ginger (Zinziber officinale), is sown in the months of April and May, chiefly on waste lands that have remained uncultivated for some years, a high light soil being best suited to its cultivation. The land requires to be first dug up with the spade, and then ploughed, harrowed, and drilled five or six times; after which the seeds are placed in parallel

ridges or mounds of earth, as in potato cultivation. The land is well manured with cow-dung, oil-cake refuse, and decaying vegetable matter from swamps. Four maunds of seed are required for one bighá of land, equal to 81 hundredweights per acre. The out-turn varies from 30 to 35 maunds per bighd, or from 65 to 76 hundredweights per acre. The crop in its green state is sold at 8 dands a maund, or 1s. 41d. a hundredweight; but when dried, at Rs. 5 a maund, or 13s. 8d. a hundredweight. The root is dug up a year after sowing, when the field is allowed to remain fallow for five or six years, after which another crop of ginger is raised. Haldl, or turmeric (Curcuma longa), is cultivated in the same manner as ginger, save that the roots are not dug up till two years after sowing. The out-turn varies from 4 to 5 maunds a bighá, or from 8% to 11 hundredweights per acre; and the value of dried turmeric from Rs. 4. 8. 0 to Rs. 5. 4. 0 a maund, or from 128. 3d. to 148. 4d. a hundredweight. Arrowroot (Maranta arundinacea), planted in a high light soil in March and April, and dug up in February or March of the following year. Onion, sown in a nursery in high light lands in November or December. A layer of sand a quarter of an inch deep is prepared for the reception of the seed, which, when sown, is covered with another thinner layer of sand. When the young shoots reach a foot in height, they are transplanted into fields, and the crop is finally dug up in April or May. A nursery of 2 káthás (5 poles) will supply plants for from 4 to 5 bighás (from 1 acre I rood 12 poles to I acre 2 roods 24 poles). The out-turn of the crop is about 60 or 65 baskets of from 16 to 20 lbs. weight, worth from 4 to 6 annds (6d. to 9d.) per basket. Almost every peasant cultivates a small plot of onions, principally for his own consumption. Rasun, or garlic (album sativa), cultivated at the same season and in the same manner as onions.

CUCURBITACEOUS PLANTS.—It is not usual to set apart any particular lands for the cultivation of these plants, which are sown in any odd corner, generally near some fence. The principal are the following:—Matirá kailla (Momordica Charantia), sown in October and November, and gathered in March and April. Bará kaillá, sown in October and November, and gathered in June and July. Lun ladu or kadu, or bottle gourd, sown from July to September, and gathered from December to February. Kankarol karkotak, gathered from May to July. Kokirá khirá, or cucumber (Cucumis sativus), sown from November to January, and gathered from May

to July. Pánikumrá, or pumpkin (Benincasa cerifera), sown from February to April, and gathered from June to August. Jhinga (Luffa acutangula), sown from February to April, and gathered from June to August. Chinchinyá, or snake gourd, sown from January to March, and gathered from July to September. Bungi, or melon, sown from November to January, and gathered in June and July. Tarmuj, or water-melon (Cucurbita citrullus), sown from November to January, and gathered from April to June.

MISCELLANEOUS CROPS .- Nil, or indigo, was cultivated in Rangpur long before any European planter set foot in the District, and was sold by the cultivators in large quantities to the Bhutias, a trade which still continues to exist. It is estimated that as much as a thousand maunds a year are taken to Jalpáigurí and elsewhere for this purpose. In former days the Bhutias used to come down to Rangpur in large caravans to make their purchases, but few now come, as markets have been established nearer their homes. At the present time there are no European indigo planters in Rangpur; the majority of them were either ruined or left their concerns at the time of the indigo disputes in 1860, and their factories were purchased by natives, who now carry on the manufacture. It does not seem that any compulsion is used by the native planters to force the peasantry to sow indigo, although many of the latter take money advances under an agreement to cultivate the indigo plant, and supply it to the planters at a fixed rate. Indigo is sown from February to April, and is cut from August to September. The land requires seven or eight ploughings and as many harrowings, besides one or two drillings, before the seed is put into the ground. The quantity of land under indigo cultivation in Rangpur District is estimated at 13,302 acres. It is principally situated in the high-lying northern portion of the District, especially pargands Kazirhat, Kánkiná, and Munthoná. The produce of the larger factories is usually taken down to Calcutta for sale; but the petty planters sell theirs on the spot to local carpet-weavers, who require it to colour their thread, or to Bhutiá traders, who convey it to Thibet. The value of indigo in the Rangpur village markets is regulated by the prices obtained at the periodical public sales which take place in Calcutta. The average out-turn of the indigo plant is about 10 or 12 bundles per bigha, or from 30 to 36 bundles per acre, of the total value of from Rs. 3. 5. 4 to Rs. 4 per bighd, or from £1 to £,1, 4s. per acre. The produce of dye obtained from a bight of plant is about 2 sers, or 12 lbs. per acre. Four sers of seed are sufficient for one bighd, or 24 lbs. of seed per acre; the value of the seed is about 1 and a ser, or about 1 d. a pound.

SUGAR-CANE requires a light dry soil. The crop is cultivated throughout Rangpur District, except in the eastern tracts. It is planted in February and March, and cut in the following January and February, being in the ground a period of about eleven months. The land requires eight or ten ploughings, and as many harrowings and drillings. The seed-plants are sown on ridges or mounds of earth raised about a foot above the level of the field. Owing to the natural moisture, the crop does not require artificial irrigation in Rangour. as it does in other parts. When the young canes are three or four feet high, they are tied together in bunches of eight or ten, to make them stand erect. The field requires careful weeding and manuring; and more care is taken of this crop than of any other. Four varieties of cane are grown, namely, sarián angi, handá, mukhi, and khári. When the canes ripen, they are cut into small pieces about six inches in length, and ground in a mill to express the juice. This is afterwards boiled into gur or molasses, which is sold and exported in its raw state without any attempt at refining. The out-turn is estimated at from 9 to 10 maunds of gur per highd, or from 19% to 22 hundredweights per acre. The quantity of land under sugar-cane in Rangpur is estimated at 20,466 acres, and the total net produce at 292,136 maunds, or 213,885 hundredweights of gur.

TOBACCO.—Rangour is noted for its tobacco cultivation. Some superior samples, sent by a native landed proprietor of the District to the Paris Exhibition in 1867, obtained a medal and certificate. The importance of the crop can be traced back to an early date. It appears from the Ms. Records of the Board of Revenue that the disturbances in 1782-83 were connected in some way with an interference by the farmer with the cultivation of tobacco by the rayals. The plant is sown in nurseries in August and September, transplanted into fields surrounding the homestead from November to January, and cut in March and April. The land is first well manured with cow-dung, house sweepings, and oil-cake refuse; it requires to be ploughed and harrowed ten or twelve times, and to be drilled twice, before it is fit for cultivation. This is the only crop in Rangpur District which requires irrigation. Half a poyd of seed is required for one bigha of land, or three-quarters of a pound to an acre. The crop requires constant care and attention to keep it free from insects known as lattás. When the leaves are plucked, they are exposed in the sun for a day to dry, after which they are made into bundles of eight or ten leaves, called jhákás; 20 or 25 of these jkákás are made up into a larger bundle called a peti, weighing about a ser or two pounds. Tobacco is principally cultivated in the high-lying northern tracts, especially in the parganás of Kázírhát and Kánkiná. In the northern tracts the out-turn varies from 3 to 4 maunds per bighd, or from 65 to 82 hundredweights per acre; and in the south of the District from 2 to 3 maunds per bighá, or from 41 to 61 hundredweights per acre. The area under tobacco cultivation in Rangpur is estimated at 71,204 acres, and the out-turn of the crop at 712,040 maunds, or 521,315 hundredweights. The price varies from Rs. 3. 8. o to Rs. 4 per maund, or from 9s. 6d. to 10s. 11d. per hundredweight, for the inferior sorts, and from Rs. 5 to Rs. 5. 8. o per maund, or from 13s. 8d. to 15s. a hundredweight, for the best qualities. The eight principal varieties of tobacco grown are known as hamak, chholámaní, barámaní, dhudí, sundur molí, chartapati, bhanga, and nawakhali. The first four named are the finest in quality, but the other varieties are stronger, and are chewed with betel leaf. Rangpur tobacco is largely purchased by Maghs from the Chittagong coast, for the purpose of being manufactured in Burmah.

PAN, or betel leaf (Piper betel), is also largely cultivated. A pan garden seldom exceeds two bighás (two-thirds of an acre) in extent. The land is raised waist-high above the level of the surrounding fields, well manured with oil-cake refuse, and closely dug; new earth is thrown on the field every year. In April or May, the roots of the old creepers are placed on ridges of earth raised for the purpose; the garden is watered every day until the plants are three feet high, when it is enclosed and roofed over with reeds and bamboos; the creepers entwine themselves round the bamboo supports. The rent of a pán garden is very high, sometimes amounting to Rs. 20 a bighd, or £6 an acre. The leaves are eaten by the people with areca nut and lime paste made from shells. In the rainy season, eighty leaves sell for a pice (1) farthings), but in April and May, before the rains set in, the same quantity is worth 2 dands (3d.). The Deputy-Collector's report does not give any estimate of the out-turn or cost of cultivation, but it is usually a very remunerative crop. The leaves of old creepers of two or three years' standing are preferred to those of younger plants.

SUPARI, or betel nut (Areca catechu). Nearly every peasant has a number of these palms in his homestead land. The trees are sometimes scattered here and there, but are generally planted in rows. They are transplanted at different stages of their growth; and it is said that a tree which has undergone seven transplantations is the most fruitful. The nuts are eaten with pan leaf, and are sold at the rate of 7 or 8 bishis for the rupee (25.), a bishi consisting of 220 nuts. The nuts are gathered between October and February, each tree yielding from two to three hundred.

Tut, or mulberry (Morus Indica). Two varieties of mulberry are cultivated in Rangpur,—one, which grows to the dimensions of a small tree, for its fruit; and the other, a bush, for rearing silk-worms. The silk-worm mulberry requires a high rich soil; it is planted between May and July; the leaves are gathered between October and February, and again in April and May. One bighd of mulberry plants yields sufficient leaves to feed worms producing five or six sers (10 or 12 pounds) of cocoons. These cocoons sell at the rate of Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 1. 12. 0 a ser, or from 1s. 6d. to 1s. 9d. a pound.

I.ANKA MARICH, or chili (Capsicum ammum). The seeds are first sown in a nursery, the young shoots being afterwards transplanted into fields from June to August, and gathered from December to February. The land requires to be ploughed and harrowed five or six times before sowing; after transplanting, it is carefully weeded several times. The cultivation of chili is limited, and is said not to suffice for the local wants of the population.

OTHER MISCELLANEOUS CROPS.—Ulu, or thatching grass (Paspalum scrobiculatum), is cut in December and January, and grows well in a poor, wet soil. Kusá grass (Poa cynosuroides) also thrives in poor, wet lands; planted in November and December, and cut in May and June. Mothá (Cyperus rotundus) requires a better soil and somewhat higher land than the foregoing; planted from January to March, cut in July and August, and again in October and November. Methi (Trigonella fcenum græcum) grows best in a light sandy soil; sown in October and November, and cut from February to April. Báns, or bamboo (Bambusa arundinacea), grows best in a high soil with an admixture of sand; but the bamboos of Rangpur are very poor and thin. They are cut between October and January, after which new shoots spring up from the old roots left in the ground.

GARDEN VEGETABLES.—Baigun, or egg plant (Solanum melongena), thrives well in ordinary garden soil, and is extensively consumed by the natives. Two crops are cultivated in the year,an early crop, planted in June or July and gathered from December to February, and a late crop, planted in October or November and gathered from May to July. Tomatoes, gajar or carrot, sálgam or turnip, and bit palang or beetroot are only cultivated in a few gardens; sown in October or November, and gathered from February to April. Mulá, or radish, cultivated only in a few gardens; sown in October and November, and dug up from December to February. Phul kúpi, or cauliflower, only raised in a few gardens; sown in October or November, and cut from February to April, Cabbages of two sorts, of kapi and banda kápi, are grown on small patches of garden land, and are sown and cut at the same seasons as cauliflowers. Piring, generally cultivated on high lands surrounding homesteads; sown in November and December, and cut in March and April. Sag or native vegetables of various kinds are also grown on homestead lands. The principal kinds of ság are paláng, chukái paláng, khonká, naphá, lill sag, and bathuva; all sown from September to November, and cut from December to February. Kusum (Carthamus tinctorius), grown on homestead land; sown from September to November, and cut from December to February. Lettuce, grown only in a few gardens; sown from October to December, and cut from December to February. Legumes of various kinds are sown around homesteads, and often trained up the sides of the house. The principal of these are-oyal-pete chhim, ghritá kanchan, gájúl gobigá chhim, kalái chhim, kotá oya chhim, labi chhim, talá páij chhim, terá dháb chhim, sindur kotá chhim, jami puli chhim, kal muchári chhim; all sown in March and April, and gathered in the following January and February.

SPICES.—Tej pál, a species of cinnamon (Cinnamomum cassia); planted in August and September. The leaves of this shrub are used for seasoning. Sajina much, or horse radish; a large tree, portions of the root of which are used for seasoning. Duphárujá or dhamjá (Coriandum sativum); sown from September to November, and cut from December to February. Kálijirá or cummin, guá-maurí (Panmorium fæniculum), phoran or bandholi (Abrus precatorius), and sálup or Indian fennel (Anethum Sowa); all sown from September to November, and cut from December to February.

FRUIT TREES .- Am, or mango (Mangifera Indica), ripens from April to June; the Rangpur fruit, however, is said to be of inferior quality, and generally worm-eaten. Nahu phal, or leechee (Nephelium Litchi). Very few of these trees are grown in Rangour District. but the fruit is said to be of superior quality; it ripens between April and June. Inli, or tamarind (Tamarindus Indica), ripens from April to June. Sharifá, or custard apple (Anona squamosa), ripens in September and October. Darim, or pomegranate (Punica granatum), ripens in July and August. Suphári ám, or guava (Psidium), ripens in July and August. Bel (Ægle Marmelos) ripens from February to April. Batári nebu, or pomelo (Citrus decumana), ripens from August to October. Nebu, or lime (Citrus acida), ripens from August to October. Moná, or bullock's heart (Anona reticulata), ripens from August to October. Kantál, or jack fruit (Artocarpus integrifolia); most plentiful from May to June, but they are also to be obtained, though sparingly, at all seasons of the year. Narikel, or cocoa-nut (Cocos nucifera), ripens in May and June. Anánás, or pine apple (Ananassa sativa); this fruit grows wild in great profusion throughout the District; ripens in May and June, but is also to be obtained, though sparingly, at other seasons of the year. Papaya (Carica Papaya) ripens from May to July. Kald, or plantain (Musa paradisiaca). Many varieties of this fruit are cultivated in Rangpur,imálábhái, kánchá kalú, maná kalá, marttáman (Martaban) kalá, antiyá kalá, kani bansi kalá, chhini sukur kalá, etc. The trees bear fruit twice a year, from May to July, and from November to January, the best being that which ripens in the hot season.

AREA OF THE DISTRICT.—At the time of Dr. Buchanan Hamilton's survey in 1809, the total area of Rangpur, which then included, besides other tracts, the whole of the present District of Goálpárá, was returned at 7400 square miles. At the time of the Revenue Survey of Rangpur, after the scparation of Goálpárá and other transfers, the area was found to be 2,954,183 acres, or 4615.91 square miles. Since 1869-70, however, the large cháklás of Bodá, Baikunthpur, and Pátgrám have been annexed to the newly formed District of Jalpáiguri, and certain parganás formerly transferred to Bográ have been re-annexed to Rangpur. The present area of the District, as returned by the Boundary Commissioner of Bengal, is 3411.54 square miles, exclusive of 123.2 square miles representing the basins of large rivers. This is the geographical as well as the magisterial area. The area comprised within the revenue jurisdic-

tion, after making a similar deduction for the large rivers, is returned at 2,380,812 acres, or 3720 square miles. The difference of 308 square miles between the magisterial and revenue jurisdictions arises from the fact that a portion of the Pátiládahá parganá within the Maimansinh police circle of Díwánganj is borne on the Rangpur rent-roll.

The special Deputy-Collector appointed to collect agricultural statistics for Rangpur (Bábu Gopál Chandra Das) has founded his calculations on a third area,—that of the estates borne on the revenue-roll of the District. With regard to this area, the Collector states as follows:—'This is in some respects different from that of the revenue jurisdiction generally, since whole estates are borne on the revenue-roll of that District in which the greater portion of each of them is situated. Thus in effect, broadly speaking, the Deputy-Collector gives statistics relating to about 10,000 acres situated in Bográ and elsewhere; and on the other hand, he leaves out altogether the estate of Purubbhág, wholly in this District, comprising about 30,000 acres, which is joined with Bodá and Pátgrám in one demand of revenue, and accordingly the whole is paid in Jalpáigurí District.'

In availing myself of the Deputy-Collector's report, I have quoted his own figures as to areas, etc.; and as the total area dealt with by the Deputy-Collector differs from both the magisterial and revenue areas, as returned by the Boundary Commissioner and the Collector, it may be as well for him to explain here in his own words the method upon which he worked. In the following list of parganás, I have simply changed the Deputy-Collector's arrangement into alphabetical sequence. The parganás to which 'No. 2' is affixed represent portions of the parganás of the same name immediately preceding them, which, together with other entire parganás, have lately been transferred to Rangpur from Bográ District.

'The area furnished to me by the zamindars, as per Survey mahalwar registers, is 2,458,611 acres, or 3841'57 square miles, as noted below:—

	Names of Parganás.	Area.
	A 1'h. f.	Acres. Roods. Poles.
I	Alihát,	15,251 3 22 16,773 1 14
2		25,264 3 8
3	Anduá,	618 1 39
4	Babunpur,	606 0 24
5	Baháman Kundá,	15,965 2 29
-	Baháman Kundá, No. 2,	600 3 4
7 8	Baharband,	386,426 0 9
9	Bairi Perri.	10,349 7 5
10	Báiltpur	10,355 1 32
11	Bájitpur, No. 2,	971 0 14
12	Bámandángá,	55,170 3 8
13	Barábíl	44,942 0 30
14	Barisákpalá,	9,019 1 17
15 16	Barisákpalá, No. 2,	4,090 2 30
	Basata, .	
17 18	Bátásun,	84,977 2 17 126,887 2 7
	Bhitárband,	10,003 I 4
19	Fathijangpur, .	90,153 t 0
20	Fathipur,	2,879 2 16
21	Gangnagar,	7,529 0 0
22	Idrákpur,	25,096 3 2
23		8,037 I 14
24	1 Kaonpui,	160,046 2 14
25 26	Kankina,	11,839 3 4
	Kázírhát,	459,409 2 30
27 28	Khámár Mahal,	7,364 2 2
29	Khás Táluk,	5,644 0 30
30	Khás Táluk, No. 2,	129 0 30
31	Khet Lál,	1,185 I O
32	Khupi,	57,741 2 22
33	Krishnai.	318 0 3
34	Kundi,	96,198 0 36
35	! Kuni Gorághát.	43 2 14 429 0 19
35 36	Kunj Gorághát, No. 2, · · ·	
37 38	Maimunthpur,	3,649 2 29 958 2 8
38	Maimunthpur, No. 2,	9,462 2 11
39	Mástá,	30,053 1 7
40	I MURILIDUI.	5,221 1 36
41	Mukhtipur, No. 2,	65,076 1 9
42	I tot mittierend	7,362 0 37
43	Páiká,	25,832 1 37
1 44	Palísbári,	7.356 2 10
45	Panga,	44,196 I IO 280,218 3 5
1 47	Pátiládahá.	280,218 3 5
47	Perri.	5,636 0 4
49	Perri Khalishá,	1,671 2 31
56	Poládási,	- 2773
51	Rokanpur,	5,309 I I 13,886 I O
52	Sarhata,	699 1 31
53	Sherpur,	8,041 2 11
54	Shukárguzárí,	5,00
1		

	1	Nam	es of P	argani	is.		Ar	82.	
55 Siksahár, 56 Sultánpu 57 Swardipp 58 Tappá, 59 Tulsighá 60 Udási, 61 Warigáci	r, ur, t,	:	:	•	:	:	 Acres Ro 11,565 1,695 37,537 62,664 0,622 10,864 7,650	I 2	Poles. 30 8 18 35 19 21 1

'Out of this area, 98,316 acres 2 roods and 11 poles are to be deducted on account of double entries in parganás Kázírhát and Munthana. These entries were made in the mahalwar registers by the Survey officers of those mahals which were held in ijmáli by the proprietors, and were measured without distinction of boundary, the total area being shown opposite to each of the mahals. As the zamindárs filed their returns according to the mahalwar registers, their statements showed the excess area of the double entries in the columns of their unculturable waste lands. The net area after this deduction is 2,360,294 acres 2 roods and 7 poles, or 3687.96 square miles, which is less by 20,518 acres than the circuit area of 3720 square miles. The cause of this difference is, that the circuit area includes 30,810 acres of land on account of Purubbhág (a portion of the Bodá estate which has been transferred to Jalpáiguri), and is consequently more by 30.810 acres than the revenue area of the District according to the rent-roll. The quantity of 20,518 acres of land above referred to being deducted from the 30,810 acres of Purubbhág, there remains a balance of 10,292 acres to be accounted for, which is explained in the following manner:-

Balance to be accounted for,				•	1	Acres 10, 292
On account of manzá Banghári, belo	inging to estate					
Chapárá in <i>pargan</i> á Kázirhát, l	out lying within		A.	r.	ø.	
pargund Bodá, not within circu	it area, .	. 2	778	2	12	
Ditto of Baidyábagish, lying in Pur	ubbhág, do.,		47 I	0	25	
Ditto of Náwádángá, do.	do.,		306	3	8	
Ditto of Biknulbárí, do.	do.,		154	0	32	
On account of land belonging to esta roll of this District, but lying in					_	
Bogra,	acres,	. <u>6</u>	581	1	_3 1	D, 292 '

Of the net area of 2,360,294 acres, or 3687'95 square miles, arrived at by the Deputy-Collector (excluding 30,810 acres of Purubbhág, which, although situated within Rangpur District, pays revenue into the Ialpaiguri treasury, and including for a similar reason 10,202 acres situated in Bográ and elsewhere), 1,737,950 acres or 73 per cent. are estimated as actually under cultivation; 112,706 acres as cultivable waste and fallow land; 52,093 acres as grazing land; and 457,544 acres as unfit for cultivation, comprising river areas (exclusive of those already deducted, which only allow for the large flowing rivers at the driest season of the year, when the Survey measurements took place), jungles, marshes, roads, boundaries, etc. The net area treated by the Deputy-Collector is 2,360,294 acres, or 3687 95 square miles, against 2,380,812 acres, or 3720 square miles, representing the revenue area, and against 2,183,385 acres, or 3411.54 square miles, representing the geographical or magisterial атеа.

Surveyed and Assessed Area.—The table on pp. 256-257, exhibiting the cultivated and uncultivated area, arranged according to parganás, together with the gross and detailed rates of assessment, is quoted from the report of the Deputy-Collector. The figures must be accepted subject to the explanation of the Deputy-Collector quoted above. I have merely altered the order of parganás in the list in order to make them run in proper alphabetical sequence.

AREA UNDER DIFFERENT CROPS.—The table on pp. 258-259 shows how the total cultivated area of 1,737,950 acres is distributed among the various crops, according to the estimate of the Deputy-Collector. I reproduce the figures as given by the Deputy-Collector, although they appear to contain some slight inaccuracies, which do not, however, invalidate the general results.

OUT-TURN AND VALUE OF CROPS ON LAND PAYING DIFFERENT RENTS.—The productive qualities of the soil as regards rice vary so much throughout the District, and the rates of rent are so arbitrary in different pargands, that only a rough estimate can be given of the probable out-turn from lands paying different rates of rents. Rice land renting at Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighd, or 9s. an acre, is generally of the description known as ek-khandd, producing but one crop in the course of the year. A fair out-turn from land of this description is from 6 to 7 maunds of unhusked rice per bighd, of the total value of about Rs. 4, or from 13 to 15\frac{1}{5} hundredweights per acre, value [Sentence continued on page 260.

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		CULTIVATED		UNCULTIVATED				Assessment.	Ę	
	Name of Pargama.	Total cultivated area.	Grating lands	Cultivable	Uncultivable.	Total area.	Gross sessons of sessons of sessons	Rate yer acre on cultiva- tion	Rate per acre co cultivable had	Pet Series
- a - 4 - 4 - 6 - 6 - 5 - 5 - 5 - 5 - 5 - 5 - 5 - 5	Alibhi, Amadaka, Amadaka, Amadaka, Anadaka, Anadaka, Anadaka, Anadaka, Bahangan, Bahangan, Bainpur, No. a, Bainpur, Katanari Mahai, Khanari Mahaini	4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4	4 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1		4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4. 4	7			Minon mood oo	K • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
## #F	Kunj Gorgani, No. a. Maimunhpur, Maimunhpur, No. a.	14 00 22,7 15 00 22,7 15 00 22 25 00 22	a mo	+ 9	11 08 08 0 4 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 10 0	40 g 40 g 60 g 80 s 80 s 70 g 70 g 80 s	. 25. E. 2	0 m = 0	0 m 0 0	0 00 0 20 0 0 20 0 0

DETAILS OF AREA AND ASSESSMENT ACCORDING TO PARGANAS (1872-73)—conlinua.

l		CULTIVATED		UNCH TIVATED.				ASSESMENT.	ENT.	
	Name of Part and	1 7	Grazing lands	Cultivable	Uncultivable	Total aven.	Gross of assent	Rate per acre of cultiva- tion.	Rate per acre on cultivable land.	Rate per noted some.
١				1 1	4. 7	A. P. P.	, R.	R. A. P.	R. a. p.	R. 0 A
_			0	0 0 114	1.789 3 12		5.623	÷ 6		
2	Mach	22.036 0 27	-	1,454 1 0	2.459 2 10	20,153	1.00	0		5
:	Mukhtipur, No 2.		20 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	1.546 2 22	30,286 3 12	-	97,013	2:	5 ::	9 9
+2	Musthani.	9777 2 20	۸.	200	835 3 1	7,302 0 37	667			710
7:	Pairthand		7	1,288 0 14	8.6 2 16	7.356 # 16	3.086	0 7		•
: :	Paldsbarf.	9,4	: :	1.408 0 34	ō	46.194	ğ.	0	0 0	
ę	Panga	39 000 0	906	۰	115.711 0 0	280,918 3 5	8,9	• •	. ~	0 15
7		0	0	_	1,020 3 27	, .	264	1 2	2	+ ::
3		-	03		-	37.347 0 36	18.534	-	0 15 7	
3	_	17 478 3 18		C	2,122	۰ .	2 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6	n :	0 0	
5	Rokanpur,	8,508	\$46 0 24	918 0 27	3.623	2 2 2	3	9 1	0 13 9	9 6
5		m	o • • •	14 37	, n	8.041	2.564	6 0	•	- 0
3		4.402 2 25	: 0		6.737	11.5 ⁶ 5 3 30	3,705	0 K	2 *	. v
2	Siksanir.	0	0	63	6 6600 0 13	17.517 0 18	24.625	200	6 21 0	0 00
20		- '		1.589 845 0 24	27.131 2	62.664 1 35	25.502	0 12		0 (
3	_	33,111 3 27	222	•	676	6,677 9 19	200	2 =	• 2	0
3 8	Udad.		232 2 31	1,7 1 31	3,138 2 5	269.4	3.242	9 6 0	• •	0 0
ē	Warngachha.	2.43				1.448.611 0 18	87.673	3	0 7 9	6 9 0
	Total,	11.587.950 1 27	165.05	9			_	-		1
_	Deduct on account of double entry in	: -	:	:	98.316 2 11	93,310 2	4			
		1,587,950 1 27	81 0 113 06	1110 206 1 28	611.544 2 20	2,360,794 2 7	937.673	;	:	!
_	in acrount of 10	:	:	i 	166,666 0	0 0 999'999	:	:		 -
	Chakis, Ralance, .	1.987.950 1 27	21 0 105.02	86 1 900 011	3 444.878 3 30	7 8 849 161 7	997.673	::	: 1	::
_	Add on account of 90,000 Upanchakis,	30 261	10.5]=	8 457.544 8 30	a the opt's	7 997.673		0 1 0	
		1	-1							

. Equal to Log. 767. 6s od., at the rate of 2t. per ruper.

R

AREA UNDER DIFFERENT CROPS.

	Name of Pargana.			A	REA C	F RAINY S	eason Crops	IN ACRES.	
	NAME OF I ARGARA.	Rice). 	Fib	res.	Indigo.	Sugar.	Vegetables.	Total.
	Alihat,	A. 5,664	r. p	A. 1,047	r. s. 2 15	A. r. p	A. r. p	A. r. p	
3	Amdahar	12,646	3 34	297	1 9		159 3 3	199 1 6	13,143 2 9
3	Andua,	10,077	2 6	957	0 0	110 0 0	161 0 0	6 1 23	11,411 3 29
! !	Araedpur,	200	0 0	6	0 0			500	215 0 0
ş	Baháman Kundá,	7,385	0 25	25 247	0 0 I 24		500	184 1 13	7,868 o 30
7	Bahaman Kunda, No 2,	189	2 4	74	0 0	:::	3 6 6	4 0 0	7,808 0 3(
8	Baharband, , ,	181,620	3 12	16,216	1 38	9 3 17	j	2,222 0 0	200,069 0 27
9	Bairl Perri, Bajitpur,	5,776	2 10 1 20	424 382	I 0	17 2 0	120 2 36	115 2 5	6,454 2 11
11	Baiitpur. No 2	3,999 249	3 29	302	0 0	***	17 2 0	100 3 0	4,506 0 29 279 1 6
12	Bámandángá.	34,550	1 12	2,060	9 30	0000	3*	160 i o	37,961 1 2
13	Barábíl,	30,358	2 24	706	0 12	67 : 6	546 2 35	193 2 7	31,872 2 4
14	Barisákpalá, Barisákpalá, No. 2,	3,268	0 I 0 28	276	0 15 1 18		53 0 0	141 2 14	3,580 2 30
15 16	Basátá,	3,094 7,071	3 31	626	0 0		143 0 0	38 o o	3,551 1 6 7,783 2 21
17	Bátásun,	23,505	1 7	2,655	3 31	1,298 2 20	1,442 3 29	382 3 24	29,285 1 21
18 10	Bhitárband,	53,227	1 15	4.719	I 10	3000	12 0 0	277 0 0	58,265 2 25
20	Fathijangpur, Fathipur,	4,581	0 22	3,780	2 22	632 0 0	39 3 20	57 2 16 263 3 19	5,498 1 0
21	Gangnagar	1,130	9 0	115	• •	0,2	11 0 0	263 3 19 14 0 0	51,187 0 37 1,270 0 0
33	Idrakpur,	5,122	1 26	242	1 10		•••	33 2 0	5,398 0 26
23 24	Islámábád, Kábilpur,	10,215	1 14	75	0 0	•••		81 10	10,370 2 24
-3	Kankina,	3.994 68,572	3 27	237 4.002	0 0	578 2 5	254 2 32 241 0 17	131 0 0 683 2 13	4,617 2 19 74,137 3 27
36	Karaibari	3,643		177	0 0	3/6	224 2 0	67 0 22	4,112 0 24
27	Kázírhát,	226,909	2 36	34.556	2 38	2,433 3 35	3,707 3 38	5,241 3 1	272,850 0 28
28 29	Khámár Mahal, Khás Táluk,	6,028	1 39	400	0 0				6,428 x 39
36	Khás Táluk, No. 2,	2,270 41	2 22 1 34	99	1 27	5 2 10	54 1 30 2 0 0	49 1 5	2,479 0 14 57 1 34
31	Khet Lal		0 0	***		! "	l '	3	455 0 0
32	Khupi,	22,301	1 14	2,185	0 0		48 0 0	102 0 0	24,636 1 14
33 34	Kundi.	135 51,886	0 I 1 I3	1,725		2,840 1 20	ا من ^{ان} م	1,211 2 8	147 0 1
35	Kunj Gorághát, Kunj Gorághát, No. 2,	18	0 34	••/-3		2,040 1 20	641 3 27	1,211 2 8	58,305 1 27 19 0 34
36	Kunj Gorághát, No. 2,	350	0 0	30	0 0		500		375 0 0
37 38	Maimunthpur, No 2, .	1,176	0 7 2 8	196 60	3 16	•	43 3 5		1,416 2 28
39	Mástá,	770 5,992	3 27	75	0 0	15 0 0	1600	1000	865 2 8 6,256 3 27
40	Mukhtipur,	15,294	1 26	1,598	2 0		92 0 0	162 0 0	17,105 3 26
43	Mukhtipur, No. 2,	4,034	0 0	225	0 0			2 2 0	4,261 2 0
42 43	Páiká,	22,397 5,263	1 37 3 1	1,593 335	o 8	615 0 0	6 1 19	81 3 3n 147 2 1	24,693 3 14 5,858 3 14
44	Páiráband,	17,694	2 2	877	3 2	186 2 10	228 0 0	252 1 5	19,239 0 9
45	Palásbari,	₹.300	0 0	480	0 0			•••	5,780 o o
46 47	Pangá,	35,988 119,891	2 29 1 7	2,018	138 238		31 0 0 67 0 0	2 0 9	38,019 3 36
48	Perri.	2,966	1 34	191	2 0	:::	79 2 0	19 0 0	124,272 0 5 3,256 1 34
49	Perri Khalisha, .	587	2 20	20	0 0		57 0 0	8 0 10	672 2 30
50 51	Poládásí, Rokanpur,	12,653 2,216	1 18 3 23	1,772	8 0	88 02)	1 300 a u	223 0 0	15,061 3 18
3.	Sarhata,	6,784	1 17	421	0 0	85 0 a) 30 0 3	156 0 0 185 0 0	27 0 2	7,544 I 20
53	Sherpur,	539	0 34	29	0 0			400	572 0 34
54	Shukarguzari,	3.731	1 2			•••		170 3 3	3,901 2 5
55 56	Siktahar,	5,630 961	3 2	121 78	0 0	••	9300	64 1 0	5,902 0 2
57	Swartippur	23,646	3 20	15	0 8	992 2 0	224 2 26	334 0 17	1,154 O O 25,213 O 31
58	Tappá	19.023	2 35	3,044	3 4	826 2 0	1,112 1 5	546 1 34	24,553 2 38
59	Tulsighåt,	3.505 5,189	2 28 2 28	500 419	2 14	77 2 30	6 1 28,	64 3 33'	4,077 2 23
	Warigachha,		1 13	316	1 15	// 90	: I	150 3 26, 14 0 30	5,817 2 35 4.783 3 18
Ι,									
1	Total,	1,163,266	1 19	98,819	0 9	11,002 2 24	11,114 0 8	14,874 1 36	1,299,080 # 16
	invalid rent-free tenures,	100 000		18,750	0 0	2,300 0 0	9,350 0 0 1	350 0 0	130,750 0 0
l	GRAND TOTAL			'					
ı	GRAND TUTAL .	1,203,200	1 19	117,509	0 9	13,302 2 24	20,454 0 8	15,224 1 36	1,429,830 216

PARGANA BY PARGANA (1872-73).

Wheat. Grains. A r, p A. r, p B. p B		Other Food		Tobacco.	Total	Homestead lands.	GRAND TOTAL
A	Wheat		Oil-seeds.	1 ouacco.	10021		
A						4 - 4	
232 0 0 140 0 19 0 14 34 14 0 0 19 0 14 34 14 0 0 12 12 22 15 13 3 89 2 0 10 0 0 7 0 5 0 0 11,00 0 10 0 10 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 0 10 0 0 0 10 0 0 0 10 0 0 0 10 0 0 0 10 0 0 0 10 0 0 0 10 0 0 10 0 0 0 10 0 0 0 10 0 0 0 10 0 0 0 10 0 0 0 0 10 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	1 2. 1		AFF				
17			631 3 34				14,173 3 14
10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10			8ha 0 7			10 0 4	13,026 3 33
15 2 21 501 3 33 38 0 24 1 3 U 877 1 3 480 2 7 9,331 0 3 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0						 	118 0 0
15 2 21 5 0 1 313 38 0 24 1 0 0,098 0 25 0 0	•	1 - 1					
1,036 a 25							
10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10		1 2 1			37,101 2 15	40,737 2 24	277,908 0 26 7,265 0 0
330 0 36 3 5 3 0 3 3 5 0 0 3 3 5 0 0 3 3 5 0 0 3 3 5 0 0 3 3 0 0 0 3 0 0 3 0 0 0 3 3 0 0 0 3 3 0 0 0 3 0 0 3 0 0 0 3 3 0 0 0 3 0 0 0 3 0 0 0 3 0 0 0 3 0 0 0 3 0 0 0 3 0 0 0 3 0 0 0 0 3 0 0 0 0 3 0	4,035 0 85			204 3 37			1,305 0 0 1,811 0 80
74 0 0 665 a 5 803 a 0 333 a 0 333 3 d 0 365 a 1 144 3,779 1 10 894 2 88 44,179 a 1 10 138 a 0 1,195 a 0 1			• • •				
74 0 0 30 0 1 15 1,115 115 2 15 2 16 1 15 2 16 2 17 1 10 0 0 2 20 34 1 10 0 0 1 13 0	•••	34 0 0				***	41,740 8 81
10	74 0 0			258 1 24			34,870 9 3
575 0 0 506 0 0 539 0 0 333 0 0 1,932 0 0 1,533 0 0 3,348 3 0 0 3,348 3 0 0 1,932 0 0 1,533 0 0 3,348 3 0 0 1,932 0 0 1,533 0 0 1,533 1 23 3,658 1 8 3,418 1 34 3,5057 3 5 488 2 0 1,104 1 32 655 2 0 1,161 3 3 2 10 225 0 0 244 0 0 3,15 9 0 0 1,161 3 2 655 2 0 1,161 3 3 2 10 225 0 0 75 2 0 485 0 0 270 1 10 10 117 0 0 117 0 0 117 0 0 117 0 0 118 0 10 10 0 0 100 0 0 36 0 0 1,348 3 1 1,349 1 1 1,349 1 1 1 1,349 1 1 1 1,349 1 1 1 1,349 1 1 1 1,349 1 1 1 1,349 1 1 1 1,349 1 1 1 1,349 1 1 1 1,349 1 1 1 1,349 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1				200	313 3 34		
575 a a 6 566 a a 539 a a 1,992 a 2, 1,992 a		10 0 0	205 0 0		-,-	1,421 0 0	
314 3 12	575 0 0	50600	777		-173	Bq6 2 19	36,887 3 23
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Sentence continued from page 255.]

about £1, 4s. od. Land renting at Rs. 3 per bighá, or 18s. an acre, produces two crops in the year. Both of these may be rice, one the dus or autumn rice, and the other the dman or winter rice. In this case the total out-turn of both crops should be from 11 to 12 maunds of unhusked rice per bighá, valued at Rs. 7 or Rs. 7. 8. o, equal to from 24 to 26 hundredweights per acre, worth from £2, 2s. od. to £2, 5s. od. More generally, however, the crop is a mixed one, instead of being exclusively rice. On high dry lands, after the removal of a crop of dus or early rice (the out-turn of which should be about 4 maunds per bighá, of the value of Rs. 2. 8. o, equal to about 82 hundredweights per acre, worth say 15s.), a second or coldweather crop of oil-seeds, pulses, or tobacco is raised. A second crop of mustard usually yields about 2 maunds per bighá, the total value of the produce being Rs. 6, equal to about 41 hundredweights per acre, of the total value of £1, 16s. od. Khesdri usually yields a second crop of 31 maunds per bighá, valued at Rs. 7. 14. 0, equal to 72 hundredweights per acre, worth about £2, 7s. 3d. Where musuri is grown, the out-turn is about 21 maunds per bighá, worth about Rs. 6. 4. 0, equal to 51 hundredweights per acre, worth about £1, 178. 6d. The out-turn of wheat would be about the same in quantity, but the value of the produce would be about Rs. 7. 8. o per bighd, or £2, 5s. od. an acre. Tobacco makes a very valuable second crop, but requires great care and attention in its cultivation. The out-turn is about 41 maunds a bighá, of the total value of about £2, equal to nearly 10 hundredweights per acre, worth say £6. By a proper selection of soil and care in cultivation, the produce of some crops, such as sugar-cane, tobacco, jute, ginger, etc., may be made very remunerative. The Collector estimates that under favourable circumstances the following out-turn can be obtained from a standard bighá (one-third of an acre) cultivated with these crops:-Sugar-cane, 9 maunds of unrefined sugar, value Rs. 36 (£3, 128. od.), or 3 maunds of refined sugar, value Rs. 60 (£6). together with 4! maunds of treacle, value Rs. 13. 8. 0 (£1, 7s. od.); total value, Rs. 73. 8. o (£7, 7s. od.). Tobacco, 8 maunds, value Rs. 36 (£3, 128. od.); jute, 15 maunds, value Rs. 45 (£4, 108. od.); ginger, 25 maunds undried, value Rs. 18 (£1, 16s. od.), or 8 maunds dried, value Rs. 40 (£,4); turmeric, 51 maunds, value Rs. 22 (£2, 4s. od.); potatoes, 25 maunds, value Rs. 50(£5); betel-nuts, 13 maunds, value Rs. 39 (£3, 18s. od.); millet or kaon, 7 maunds,

value Rs. 8 (16s.); chind, 5 maunds, value Rs. 6 (12s.); thihrihaldi, 3 maunds, value Rs. 7 (14s.); and arhar, 5 maunds, value Rs. 16. 8. 0 (£1, 13s. od.).

Estimated Out-turn and Value of total District Produce.— The Deputy-Collector, Bábu Gopál Chandra Das, gives the following approximate estimate of the total out-turn of crops in Rangpur District, together with their marketable value, etc. It must be remembered that the area dealt with by the Deputy-Collector also includes the police circle (thand) of Diwangani, which is subject fiscally to Rangpur, but is within the magisterial jurisdiction of Maimansinh; and the figures must be accepted subject to the explanation respecting details of area, etc., given on a previous page when reproducing the Deputy-Collector's calculations. The apparent total of cultivated land in this estimate amounts to 1,933,597 acres. The actual cultivated area, as given elsewhere by the Deputy-Collector, is 1,737,950 acres. The explanation is, that lands which bear two crops have been in some cases inserted twice over in the present estimate. It should also be stated that a few errors in calculation have been corrected:-

1,222,517 acres yielding dman rice only, at 21 maunds per acre; total, 25,672,857 maunds of paddy (unhusked rice), equal to 16,045,535 maunds of rice, which, at Rs. 1. 6. 0 per maund,	
or 3s. 9d. per cwt., is worth	Rs. 22,062,610
40,749 acres yielding two crops of rice, at 30 maunds per acre; total, 1,222,470 maunds of paddy, equal to 763,043 maunds	
of rice, worth, at Rs. 1. 6. 0 per maund, or 3s. 9d. per cwt.,	1,049,184
275,067 acres yielding dus or early rice, at 15 maunds per acre; total, 4,126,005 maunds of paddy, equal to 2,578,752 maunds	
of rice, worth, at Rs. 1. 6. 0 per maund, or 3s. 9d. per cwt.,	3,545,784
117,569 acres yielding jute, at 9 maunds per acre; total, 1,058,121 maunds of jute, worth, at Rs. 1. 8. 0 per maund, or	
4s. 1d. per cwt.,	1,587,181
13,302 acres yielding indigo, at 90° bundles per acre; total, 1,197,180 bundles, worth, at 4 bundles per rupee, or 6d. per	
bundle,	299,295
20,466 acres yielding sugar, at 23 maunds of gur per acre; total, 470,718 maunds, worth, at Rs. 2. 8. 0 per maund, or 6s. 10d.	
per cwt.,	1, 176, 795
15,226 acres yielding vegetables, such as potatoes, ginger,	

^{*} This is the estimate of the Deputy-Collector, but it appears to be excessive. The out-turn of indigo plant has been more correctly stated on p. 246 at from 30 to 36 bundles per acre.

turmeric, onions, garlic, etc., at 90 maunds per 1,370,340 maunds, worth, at Rs. 1. 8. 0 a maun				
per cwt.,				Rs. 2,055,510
35,110 acres yielding wheat, at 7 maunds per 245,770 maunds, worth, at Rs. 3 per maund,		•	-	
cwt.,	•	•	•	737,310
73,145 acres yielding oil-seeds, at 6 maunds per 438,870 maunds, worth, at Rs. 5 a maund, or				
cwt.,		•	•	2,194,350
71,204 acres yielding tobacco, at 10 maunds per 712,040 maunds, worth, at Rs. 5 a maund, or				
cwt.,			•	3,560, 20 0
49,242 acres yielding other food-grains than rice 10 maunds per acre; total, 492,420 maunds, w				
per maund, or 8s. 2d. per cwt.,	•	•	•	1,477,260
Total,				Rs. 39,745,479

or £3,974,547, 18s. od.

CONDITION OF THE CULTIVATING CLASSES.—From eighty to a hundred bighás, or from twenty-seven to thirty-three acres, would be considered a very large holding for a single husbandman in Rangpur District. To cultivate a farm of this extent, he would require from eight to ten ploughs; and even though there were four or five adult male members of the family, he would need to employ an equal number of hired labourers. A cultivator's holding not exceeding three or four bighás (or from an acre to an acre and a third) in extent would be considered a very small one. A farm consisting of about twenty-five bighás or eight acres would be considered a fair-sized, comfortable holding, and would require probably about three ploughs for its proper cultivation. The Collector estimates that about thirty per cent. of the peasantry of Rangpur District cultivate only a single plough of land. The extent comprised in a 'plough' of land varies according to the nature and condition of the soil and of the crop cultivated, but on an average it may be taken at from ten to eleven bighás, or from $3\frac{1}{3}$ to $3\frac{2}{3}$ acres. The poorer husbandmen with only a single plough generally cultivate mixed crops on their holdings, as being more remunerative than rice alone. A husbandman with a farm of fifteen bighds or five acres in extent. if he cultivated only rice, would be about in the same position as a man drawing a fixed pay of Rs. 8 or 16s. per month, perhaps not quite so well off; but his condition would be considerably better if his land admitted of his cultivating mixed crops. The Collector

states that both socially and materially, these small farmers, with holdings of fifteen bighas or five acres of all descriptions of land, are quite on a par with the respectable village shopkeepers and retail A considerable proportion of the cultivators are in debt, but not to the extent that prevails in certain other parts of India. The manager of Rání Swarnamayi's estate, in the eastern portion of the District, reported to the Collector in 1871 that about one-half of the cultivators in that tract were in debt. For other parts of the District the Collector is of opinion that the proportion of husbandmen in debt is considerably less, and that it does not exceed from fifteen to twenty per cent. The cause of debt most frequently arises from the misfortunes of a single season, extravagance on the occasion of marriages and other festivals, or from speculation. This last cause chiefly affects the larger husbandmen (jotdars), who frequently set up as merchants for buying up country produce, and occasionally meet with heavy losses.

RIGHTS OF OCCUPANCY, ETC.—The great majority of the husbandmen of Rangpur District hold their lands without occupancy rights. One cause which contributes greatly to this state of things is said to be that the cultivators are fond of changing their lands, and frequently relinquish one holding for another. In Baharband and the eastern parts of the District, the proportion of husbandmen holding their lands with a right of occupancy is estimated at one-eighth of the whole cultivating body; in Swaruppur, in the east, the proportion is returned at one-sixteenth, and in the southern parts of the District at fiveeighths. For the District as a whole, the Collector states that onefourth seems to be a fair estimate of the proportion which the cultivators with a right of occupancy bear to the whole body. The remainder are either tenants-at-will, or tenants settled for a term of years, subject to a new settlement on the expiration of their leases. The Collector has been unable to obtain any information from the local landholders of the number or proportion of husbandmen in Rangpur District who hold their farms under a right of occupancy, and are at the same time exempt from liability to enhancement of rent. Their number, however, is undoubtedly small, and, in the opinion of the Collector, does not exceed one-sixteenth of the whole body of the tenantry.

There is no class of small proprietors in Rangpur District who own, occupy, and cultivate their hereditary lands without either a zamindár or superior holder above them, or a sub-holder or

krishán or labourer of any sort below them. It is just possible that there may be a few solitary instances of such a holding within the District, but the Collector states they have not been remarked, and that inquiry has failed to discover their existence. There are a large number of holders of rent-free estates in Rangpur. It is the almost invariable custom for the proprietors of these estates either to sublet their lands, or to cultivate them through others by a sort of metayer tenure, the cultivator paying no rent and taking half the produce of the land, while the remaining half goes to the proprietor of the estate. The Collector states that Rs. 2 (4s.) per month a head (counting two children as one adult person) is a sufficient allowance for a cultivator to support his household upon in moderate comfort. Taking the family to consist of three adults and two children, this would represent a monthly sum of Rs. 8 or 16s.

THE DOMESTIC ANIMALS OF RANGPUR comprise elephants, horses, oxen, buffaloes, donkeys, sheep, goats, pigs, dogs, cats, and fowls. Elephants are somewhat numerous, and are owned by many of the samindárs, being caught in the hills of Goálpárá or the Dwárs. In former days a large number of elephants were annually captured and made over to Government, in payment of the land revenue of certain of the samindars whose estates bordered on Kuch Behar and Bhután. They were then sold by the Collector, and sometimes brought prices averaging only £5 each. This practice, however, has long been discontinued, and the revenue is now invariably paid in money. Horses are neither plentiful nor good of their kind; of late years, however, dealers have begun to bring a better class of horses from up-country at the season of the great fairs. The Bhutiá ponies have long been famed in the District, but they are not now held in their former estimation, as it is supposed that the breed has somewhat deterior-They are still brought to Rangpur by the Bhutias in their annual visits to the District, but not to such an extent as formerly, equally good markets being now met with farther north. Manipuri and Burmah ponies are also occasionally obtainable. The cattle of the District are of small size, and rarely exceed four feet in height. A principal cause of this stunted growth is stated to be the want of grazing land, beaten straw being the only provender available for the cattle. The best cattle and oxen are all imported from the up-country Districts. The total number of cows and bullocks in Rangpur District is returned by the Deputy-Collector at 1,765,264. Buffaloes are comparatively few in number in Rangpur, and the

domesticated ones are not of a very good kind. They are most numerous on the banks of the Brahmaputra, the chars of which make good grazing ground. Buffaloes are not reared in Rangpur, but are imported by dealers from Purnish and the Districts of the Upper Provinces, and sold at fairs. The total number of buffaloes in Rangour is returned by the Deputy-Collector at 2835. Sheep are only kept by those who have available grazing lands, and are reared by Muhammadans for food. Goats are abundant in Rangpur. The total number of sheep and goats in the District is returned by the Deputy-Collector at 241,081, of which, however, the sheep do not comprise more than one-tenth. The price of an ordinary cow is about Rs. 15 (£1, 10s. od.); a pair of bullocks fetch from Rs. 20 to Rs. 40 (£2 to £4); a score of country sheep, Rs. 30 (£3); a score of imported Patná sheep, from Rs. 60 to Rs. 75 (£6 to £7. 10s. od.); a score of kids six months old, Rs. 15 (£1, 10s. od.); and a score of full-grown pigs, Rs. 140 (£14).

AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS .- As before explained, 'a plough' of land, viz. the extent cultivable by a single pair of bullocks with one plough, is in Rangpur District generally taken to represent from 10 to 11 standard bighás, or about 31 standard acres. With a light soil, strong oxen, and active cultivation, however, the plough of land may extend to as much as 15 bighds, or about 5 standard acres. The total capital required to till a plough of land is about Rs. 40 (£4), including the cost of an ordinary pair of plough oxen and of the requisite implements of agriculture. These implements, which would cost from Rs. 5 to Rs. 6 (10s. to 12s.), are as follow:—(1) Nángal, a wooden plough with an iron share; (2) joyál, or yoke; (3) mái, or bamboo harrow, constructed in the shape of a ladder, and drawn by bullocks, the driver standing upon the implement to give it weight; (4) bidá or nángliá, a large grubber dragged by bullocks; (5) kursi, a clod-crusher or mallet; (6) hát-nángál, or hand plough not requiring oxen, and used by the peasantry in cultivating turmeric, ginger, etc.; (7) a rake for grubbing up weeds, also called hát-nángál; (8) kánchhi, or sickle; (9) kodáli, a large hoe used instead of a spade; (10) pasun, a smaller hoe; (11) kuráli, or axe; (12) dáo, or bill-hook for fencing and cutting bamboos; (13) pái, a scraper for gathering the paddy together after it has been reaped; (14) senti or sati, a basket for irrigating the fields; (15) kuld, a basket fan for winnowing rice; (16) tulá, a basket for measuring grain; (17) dáli, a basket for carrying vegetable produce to and from the

market; (18) penti, a stick for driving the cattle; (19) bankuá, a large stick used for carrying the sheaves of paddy from the field. The whole of the implements mentioned above, with the exception of the grubber (No. 4), axe (No. 11), and bill-hook (No. 12), are required for the cultivation of a single plough of land. It may not be out of place here to give the Collector's estimate of the expense of cultivating a single bigha of land (1 of an acre) with various crops. The rates are calculated on the supposition that hired labour is employed, and include six months rent:-Aus rice, Rs. 4 (8s.); áman rice, Rs. 3 (6s.); tobacco, Rs. 9 (18s.); sugar-cane, Rs. 22 (£2, 4s. od.); mustard seed, Rs. 3. 4. o (6s. 6d.); jute, Rs. 5 (10s.); potatoes, Rs. 6. 8. 0 (13s.); ginger, Rs. 5 (10s.); turmeric, Rs. 6. 8. 0 (13s.); wheat, Rs. 2. 12. 0 (5s. 6d.); chilies. Rs. 10 (£1); pán, Rs. 125 (£12, 10s. od.); betel-nut, Rs. 5. 8. o (118.); káon, Rs. 2. 8. 0 (58.); chiná, Rs. 2. 8. 0 (58.); thikrí kalái, 12 ánnás (18. 6d.); khesári, 12 ánnás, (18. 6d.); arhar, R. 1. 2. 0 (2s. 3d.). In the case of husbandmen who cultivate from 10 to 30 bighas, with from one to three ploughs, but have not to engage hired labour, the cost of cultivation would barely amount to one-half of the rates mentioned above.

WAGES AND PRICES.—The Collector returns the present (1871) rates at which labour is obtainable in Rangpur District as follow:-Agricultural day-labourers, from 21 annás to 21 annás (from 31d. to 31d.) per day; ordinary labourers in towns, from 21 annás to 3 ánnás (31d. to 41d.) per day. The monthly wages of blacksmiths vary from Rs. 6 to Rs. 8 (12s. to 16s.); of carpenters, from Rs. 8 to Rs. 12 (16s. to £1, 4s. od.). Bricklayers are now paid at the rate of from Rs. 125 to Rs. 135 (£12, 10s. od. to £13, 10s. od.) per lakh (100,000) of bricks moulded and burnt. Previous to 1860. since which date a considerable rise in the value of labour has occurred, ordinary and agricultural labourers were obtainable at the rate of from 1 anná to 12 annás (11d. to 21d.) a day; blacksmiths and carpenters earned from Rs. 4 to Rs. 6 (8s. to 12s.) a month: while the rate paid for brickmaking was Rs. 60 (£6) per lakk (100,000). Prices of food-grains have advanced in a more than corresponding rate. The following table, supplied by the Collector in 1871, exhibits the average prices of ordinary foodgrains in 1785-86, in 1859-60, the maximum rates prevailing in the famine year of 1866-67, and the ordinary rates in December 1870 (at ne time of the winter rice harvest):-

COMPARATIVE PRICES OF FOOL-GRAINS (PER MAUND AND CWT.) AT DIFFERENT PERIODS.

	Average of 1785-86	1785-86	Average of 1859-60.		aximum rate (Famine	Maximum rate in 1866-67 (Famine 3 ear)	Rate in December 1870	nber 1870
	Per monud of Ealba	Per cwt.	Per manual of Per cwt. Baibs Per cwt. Baibs. 82 lbs.	¥	r maund of 82 lbs.	Per cwt.	Per cwt. Balbs.	Per, cwt.
Best cleaned rice,	A. 4. p. 0 14 0	4 4.	R. u. p. s. d. R. a. p. s. d. o. 14 o. 13 11 S. 11	¥ ==	Х. л. р. S o o	s. d. 13 8	R. a. p.	1. d. 6 10
Common rice,	91060	9 1	1 7 8 4 0		0 0	12 6	0 0	5 5
Unshelled barley,	0 9 0	0	4 4 4	∞	2 11 8	7 5	no return no return	no retum
Wheat,	9 01 0	řó -	00 1.	0	0 0 5	13 8	2 11 0	7 4

In 1872 the ordinary rates were—for best cleaned rice, Rs. 2. 3. 6 a maund, or 6s. a hundredweight; and for common rice, Rs. 1. 8. 7 per maund, or 4s. 2\frac{1}{2}d. a hundredweight.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—The following paragraphs regarding the extreme diversity of weights and measures current in different parganás is extracted verbatim from the Collector's special report to me in 1871:- There is an infinite variety of weights used in this District, differing according to the locality, the substance weighed, and the usages of trade. The rati, or seed of the Abrus precatorius, is said to be the basis of weight for gold, silver, and drugs. The seed itself averages about 1 5 grains in weight; the artificial rati should be double this weight, but in common use it averages about 21 grains. The standard gold and silver weight is as follows: -4 dhán = 1 ratí; 8 ratí = 1 máshá; 12 máshá = 1 tolá of 180 grains troy. This is the standard told as fixed by Regulation vii. of 1833; but the told most commonly used and recognised previous to 1833, on which the weights and measures must in many instances have been founded, was the weight of the sikká rupee, which when new should weigh 179.666 grains troy. As the current silver coin of the realm has commonly been used as the basis of weights and measures in India, the extreme diversity of the standards in Rangpur may in part be accounted for by the debased nature of the coin current in the District in the latter part of the last century. In 1787 there was no copper coin whatever in circulation in the District, its place being to some extent supplied by cowries (kauris). There were some 12 lákhs of nárávaní half-rupees in circulation; but these were so debased, that in 1785 Government had to sell off an accumulation of them at the Rangpur treasury at the rate of 400 half-rupees for 100 Calcutta sikká rupees. They would circulate only in Kuch Behar (where they were coined), Assam, the eastern Bengal Districts, and in Bhután, and were exchanged generally at the rate of 273 half-rupees for 100 Calcutta sikká rupees. The narayani whole rupees were neither coined nor in circulation at that time; indeed, the only whole rupee generally current in the District was the French arcot rupee (coined at Pondicherri), but this was so much clipped as to be worth only from nine annas upwards. Two lakes of these rupees were estimated to be in circulation in 1787. A year or two later we find mention of the sonát rupee being in circulation at a discount of one ánná; and of small quantities of inferior kinds of rupees, called jashi, gursal, and u-uli,

current at a discount of $4\frac{1}{10}$, $5\frac{1}{10}$, and $6\frac{1}{10}$ *ánnás* respectively. In this debased state of the coinage, uniformity in weights and measures was not to be expected, the basis of these being regulated according to the weight of the rupee or told. Large substances are sometimes, but not generally, weighed according to the Government standard as follows:-5 told = 1 chhaták; 16 chhaták = 1 ser, or 2 lbs. o oz. 141 drs.; 40 ser = 1 man or maund of 100 troy pounds, or 82 lbs. avoirdupois. The above are the standard weights, but they have not been at all generally adopted. The table most commonly used is as follows:—80 rati = 1 tolá; 60 tolá = 1 kachhá ser; 90 tolá = 1 paká ser; 5 ser = 1 dhárá; 8 dhárá = I maund, the maund of course varying in weight according to whether the kachhá or paká ser is used. To the west of the Jabuneswari, the lighter or kachhá ser is the one most generally employed, and grain, etc. is measured by it. To the east, however, and especially in the neighbourhood of the headquarters town, the paká ser of 90 tolás prevails. The ser, however, varies in the different markets. Thus we have 58, 60, 72, 80, 8210, 84, 87, 90, and 480 tolás to the ser. This last is called kálá chándí ujan, and is used in the neighbourhood of Kulághát for weighing tobacco. Oil is generally, and silk uniformly, weighed by the ser of 72 tolds; cotton thread, etc., by the kachhá ser of 60 tolás.

'In selling grain, in some places a practice prevails at harvest time of reckoning an extra number of tolás to the ser, instead of actually reducing the price. It is more usual, however, to measure grain in baskets, which are supposed to contain some definite number of local sers. The basket for measuring paddy, etc. is called a káthá, and contains either 11 sers or 21 sers. The further denominations of this measurement are as follow: -- 20 káthá = 1 bis; 16 bis = 1 puti. In some parts of the west of the District, the grain measure is called a don, and contains 11 kachhá sers, while a larger don contains 4 kachhá sers. The other denominations of this measurement are the same as with the kathá. Oil is measured in a vessel called a tank, holding sometimes 4 sers and sometimes half a maund. The maund in measuring oil contains 48 sers of 72 told weight. Milk and similar liquids are measured in a vessel called a ghati, which in some places contains half a ser, in some one ser, and in others 21 sers (of 80 told weight)."

'LAND MEASURE.—The following is the recognised table of land measure:—3 barleycorns=1 anguli; 4 anguli=1 mushti; 6 mushti

=1 cubit or háth; 4 háth=1 guthone or bow; 1000 bows=1 kos. This, however, is rarely adhered to; the mass of the people, in estimating length, use only indefinite terms, roughly expressive of their A háth is the length of an ordinary man's forearm; a rasi, or chain, generally means about 50 yards; a tir, or bowshot, about 80 yards. A kos (properly speaking, about two miles) is generally understood to represent the distance a man can walk in two dandas (about 48 minutes). Every parganá has its own standard of measurement, and even throughout some parganás the standard is not uniform. In some, it is a recognised practice for the superior tenants to use a shorter chain in measuring the lands of their undertenants than that used by their own samindars. The general unit in land measure is the dast or cubit, and the permanent standard rod of each parganá represents either the cubit or the yard. gaj or dirra, derived from the cubit. The following are specimens of some tables of measurement recorded in the District about eighty years ago:-(1) Parganá Kázirhát: 104 mushti=1 gaj or yard; 10 gaj=1 phul: 10 phul=1 chain or rasi; 40 gaj × 40 gaj=1 don; length of gaj filed, 34 inches. (2) Pargand Kundi: 10 mushti=1 gai: to gaj=1 phul; to phul=1 rasi; 40 $gaj \times 40$ gaj=1 don; length of gaj, 32 inches. (3) Parganá Ambári: 110 háths of 181 inches =1 bighá rasí. (4) Chaklá Gorághát: (a) páli mahals, i.e. a soft. sandy soil, producing all kinds of crops, the following is the usual standard measure:—4 anguli=1 mushti; 6 mushti=1 dast; 10 mushti=14 dast=1 dirrá; 52 dirrá=91 dast=1 rasi. (b) In khear lands, i.e. a hard, stiff soil producing winter rice only, the measure is ordinarily as follows:—13 dast=1 dirrá; 48 dirrá=84 dast=1 rast. The dast here referred to is that of Raja Gaurinath (1788 A.D.).

'The unit of assessment is the square chain, called in some parganás the bighá, in others the don. The latter corresponds exactly to the Government standard bighá of 1600 square yards; and this is the measurement used in all the parganás which were included in the ancient territory of Kochwárá, so called probably from being comprised within the dominions of the Koch princes. The denominations of this measure are as follow:—I square yard=1 kará or kauri; 4 kará=1 gandá; 25 gandá=1 kálí or kání; 16 káll=1 don; 20 don=1 bis; 16 bis=1 ganco. In the other parganás of the District, as elsewhere in Bengal, the bighá is the standard of measure most commonly used. Its various denominations are as follow:—I square yard=1 kará; 4 kará=1 gandá;

20 gandd=1 kathd; 20 kathd=1 bighd, or 14,400 feet, or 1600 square yards. [This is the standard bighd, but the local bighd varies in extent in different pargands. In all my calculations throughout this Statistical Account, I have taken the bighd at \(\frac{1}{2} \) of an English acre, and the maund at 82 lbs. avoirdupois.] The following table shows the recognised land measure current in the principal pargands of Rangpur District:—

					Collec- ate.	Length o	[cha	in weed			
							Ft.	in.	Yds.	ft.	in.
Kánkiná,							2	81	35	2	6
Panosi.							2	7	35	0	10
Kábilpur.							. 2	6	34	0	6
Puruhbhag,							3 2	o	40	2	6
Munthana,							2	7	14	I	4
Basátá, .							. 2	61	34 33	1	IÒ
Kázírhát,							2	10	1 37	2	4
Тарра,							2	81	36 38 36	ō	Ä
Bhitárband.							2	11.	38	2	8
Bámandángá,							, 2	81	16	0	Ă
Udási, .							2	7	14	1	Ä
Fathipur,							2	61	1 ii	ō	5
Swaruppur,		-			-		1 2	10	48	ō	8
Amdahar.		-		-	-		1	81	48	4	54
Páiráband,		-	-		•	·	ì	81	1 48	7	71
Barábíl,	•		•	•	•	•		81	48	7	41
Pátiládahá,	•	•	•	•	•	•	÷	7	34 34 48 48 48 48	4	8
Baharband,	•	•	:	•	•	•	' 2	11	1 7	ĭ	Ĭ
Gaibárí,	•	•	•	•	•	•	2	11	54 38	2	8

"Measures of Time.—People of education use the European method of reckoning time. The ghantá or gharí corresponds to the English hour, and the English word minute has been adopted into the language:—60 minutes = 1 ghantá or gharí; 12 ghantá = 1 din, or day; 24 ghantá = 1 diba rát, or day and night. The old Bengalí fashion of reckoning time, however, still prevails with the mass of the agricultural population. Under this system the day is considered to commence at sunrise and to end at sunset, being divided into 4 prahars or watches (consisting generally of three hours each). When the sun is on the meridian course, it is do-prahar, or midday. The period from sunrise to noon is called purub-ahno; and from noon to sunset, opor-ahno. From 6 to 12 o'clock during the day or night, the time is reckoned from the former hour, and expressed as jaite. From 12 to 6 it is reckoned backwards from the latter hour, and is

distinguished as thakite. The former method of reckoning may be continued beyond 12 o'clock, and the latter begun previously to it, but this is not generally the case. The former during the day-time is sometimes called usani, and the latter bhatile. Thus, der prahar din jaite or der prahar usani means about 10.30 A.M.; der prahar din thakite or der prahar bhatile means about 1.30 P.M. Similarly, der prahar rat jaite and der prahar rat thakite mean 10.30 P.M. and 1.30 A.M. respectively, while do-prahar rat means midnight. The Bengali standard of reckoning time is as follows:—60 bipal=1 pal; 60 pal=1 danda, or 24 minutes; 7½ danda=1 prahar, or 3 hours; 4 prahar=1 din (day) or 1 rat (night); 8 prahar=1 dibarat, or day and night from sunrise to sunrise.'

LANDLESS LABOURING CLASSES.—The Collector reports that there does not appear to be any marked tendency towards the growth of a distinct class of day-labourers in Rangpur District, who neither rent land nor possess any of their own. There is, indeed, a considerable class of labourers, known as nagurs, many of whom do not hold any land; but the rule is otherwise. The great majority of the labouring population have small holdings, ranging from six bighas or two acres in extent downwards. If a labourer lives in his own house, he generally gives his spare time to his little plot of ground. If his holding, however, consists of more than two bighds or twothirds of an acre in extent (and the Collector estimates that fully one-third of the labourers' holdings are larger than this), it is more usual for him to make it over to a neighbour to till it for him, on condition of receiving a half share of the produce. Labourers who are employed as farm servants are called krishans. These in general live in their master's house, and are fed by him. A krishán's engagement may be either monthly or yearly. In the latter case, the usual rate of pay is from Rs. 16 to Rs. 30 (£1, 12s. od. to £3) a year, with food; in the former case, he receives from Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 2 (38. to 48.) per month, with food. Daily farm servants are called nagdá krisháns, but this class is not numerous in Rangpur. The Collector states that it is not an unusual thing in this District for a man to borrow a sum of money, and then to work off the debt by his labour; and instances are known to occur in which men even work off debts thus contracted by their parents. The krishans or agricultural labourers have no claim whatever to a share of the crop. nor is it usual to pay their wages in kind instead of in money. Another and more important body of peasantry in Rangpur are the

ádhiárs, a sort of metayer tenantry, who, as implied by their name, gain a subsistence by cultivating the lands of others on condition of receiving a share of the crop. The adhiar may have also a holding of his own; indeed, most of them have a little plot round their houses, on which they rear the castor-oil plant, or tobacco, or vegetables of some kind; but their chief subsistence is gained by cultivating the lands of others. A large class of people th Rangour hold land which their position or caste prejudices prechide them from cultivating themselves. These include the samindars who hold their khámár or private lands, and all the priestly or quasi-priestly classes in possession of brahmottar, debottar, or other lands granted to them as rent-free endowments. All such lands, together with others which may be held by persons whose dignity will not allow them to till the soil for themselves, are made ever to the adhide to cultivate, on condition that he gives the owner half the produce of the fields. The subordinate conditions of this tenure vary according to circumstances. It is usual for the other to his to the first instance; and twice the amount of reed advanced in generally deducted from the produce and made over to the owner before the regular division of the crop takes place. The plough cattle generally belong to the ddhidr. A further description of this tenure will be found on a subsequent page, when I come to treat of the land tenure: of the District. Women and children are very little employed in -the fields; the obtidger work of the women is mostly confined to weetling the little plots of gibland around the homescad. Heye are employed to some extent at harvest time in carrying in the grain from the fields; but from a very early age they go out with their fathers to learn how to manage the plough, although the actual amount of work they do is inconsiderable.

SPARE LAND.—Waste-land tenures, such as the ut-bandi of Nadiyá and the júmiá of Chittagong, are unknown in Rangpur District. Except the poor land on some of the large chars, and that which is covered with jungle, there is very little spare land at all, and even grazing land for the cattle is very scarce. It is said, however, that the restless spirit of the cultivators and their desire for change have some effect in always keeping a certain extent of land available for settlement.

LAND TENURES.—The following paragraphs regarding the land tenures of Rangpur District are condensed from a Special Report by the Deputy-Collector, Bábu Gopál Chandra Das, reprinted in VOL. VII.

that officer's Report on the Agricultural Statistics of Rangpur for 1872-73, pp. 37-60. The land tenures are divided into six classes, namely,—(1) Tenures held direct from Government; (2) superior intermediate tenures created by landlords; (3) sub-tenures created by middlemen; (4) tenures held by actual cultivators; (5) revenue-free tenures; and (6) rent-free tenures.

TENURES HELD DIRECT FROM GOVERNMENT.—The Deputy-Collector states that under this head are included the holdings of those who, prior to the time of the Decennial Settlement, had a proprietary right in the land, being feudal lords, independent tálukdárs, collectors of rent, farmers of villages, or owners of non-valid rent-free grants. By section 4 of Regulation viii. of 1793, it was declared that 'the Settlement shall be concluded with the actual proprietors of the soil, of whatever denomination, whether samindars, talukdars, or chaudharis.' Under section 5 of the said Regulation, a certain number of tálukdárs were declared to be actual proprietors, and as such entitled to a direct Settlement with Government. These are still termed 'independent tálukdárs.' The proprietors of áimá malgusári tenures, or lands held at a fixed quit-rent under grants made by Muhammadan Governors previous to the Company's accession to the diwini, or granted since that date by proprietors of estates for a consideration received by them, were also regarded as actual proprietors entitled to enter into direct engagements with Government. A certain class of mukarraridars, not being actual proprietors of the land, whose leases were granted or confirmed by the Supreme Government, or obtained previous to the Company's accession to the diwani, were allowed to hold their tenures direct from Government during their lives, but on their deaths the Settlement was to be made with the actual proprietors of the land (section 16 of Regulation viii. of 1793). In case of mortgage, if the mortgagee had possession of the land at the time of the Permanent Settlement, the Settlement was made with him, and the proprietor was declared entitled to succeed to his engagement on recovering possession. If the mortgager had possession, the Settlement was made with him, and the mortgagee was declared entitled to succeed to his engagement on his obtaining possession of the land (section 28. Regulation viii. of 1793). Where there was no proprietor, or where the proprietor was not forthcoming, the Settlement was made with a farmer for a term of ten years, preference being given to the nearest samindar (section 29, Regulation viii. of 1793). The

owners of non-valid rent-free tenures resumed under Regulation ii. of 1810 were also entitled to a direct Settlement with Government. In khás mahals, where Government has the proprietary as well as the sovereign right in the land, the farmers hold their tenure direct from Government.

The number of estates on the Rangpur rent-roll in 1790 was 72, the total Government revenue assessed on them being Rs. 818,360 or £81,836. Since then, several pargands have been separated from, and others added to, Rangour District. Mr. Glazier, in his Report on the District of Rangpur, pp. 40-41, thus classifies the samindari estates in 1873:—'Original number of estates settled, 72; transferred to other Districts, 13; original estates still remaining, 50; new estates acquired by resumption proceedings, 125; ditto by sales, 152; ditto by partitions, 172; ditto from dried river beds, 23; estates transferred from other Districts, 32: total number of estates in 1873, 563, paying a Government revenue of Rs. 974.089 or £97,409, of which Rs. 971,530 or £97,153 is derived from permanently settled, and Rs. 2530 or £253 from temporarily settled estates. Of the 563 estates, 463 held by 1229 Hindus pay a total revenue of £87,418, 14s. od.; 52 estates held by 160 Muhammadans pay a revenue of £3254, 14s. od.; 45 held jointly by 261 Hindus and 186 Muhammadans pay a revenue of £6730, 10s. od.; and I Government estate pays a revenue of £5. Classified according to the amounts paid, the estates are divided as follow: - 8 pay an annual revenue of less than £1; 184 between £1 and £10; 215 between £10 and £100; and 156 upwards of £100.

SUPERIOR INTERMEDIATE TENURES.—Under this class the Deputy-Collector places (1) dependent tálukdárs; (2) patnidárs; (3) mukarraridárs; (4) istimraridárs or maurúsidars; (5) upanchakidars; (6) majkuridars; (7) jotdars; and (8) ijárádars or thikadars. The peculiar rights of each of these tenure-holders are thus described:-

Dependent Talukdars .-- At the time of the Permanent Settlement, such subordinate leaseholders as were compelled by the terms of their lease to pay the Government revenue through their landlords. were not considered as proprietors of their lands, but only as tenants of the samindars. They are known as dependent talukdars: but in Rangpur District this tenure does not exist.

Patni Talukdars.—The preamble of Regulation viii. of 1819 defines the relative rights of samindars and paint talukdars. The rules laid down in the Permanent Settlement law authorized the proprietors of land, with whom Government made engagements for the payment of public revenue, to lease out their estates in any manner they might think most conducive to their interests, subject, however, to two restrictions laid down in Regulation xliv. of 1703. first of these restrictions was, that the rent should not be fixed for a period exceeding ten years; the second, that in case of a sale of the parent estate for arrears of public revenue, such lease should stand cancelled from the date of sale. That portion of the law which limited the term of the lease to ten years was rescinded by Regulation v. of 1812; and Regulation xviii. of 1812 distinctly declared that "samindars are at liberty to grant táluks or other leasts of land, fixing the rent in perpetuity, at their discretion, subject, however, to the liability of their being dissolved on sale of the grantor's estate for arrears of Government revenue." This patri tenure was first created by the Mahárájá of Bardwán, and subsequently adopted on the estates of other proprietors. The nature of this tenure is, that it is held by the lessee and his heirs at a rent fixed in perpetuity: the holder is called upon to furnish collateral security for the rent and for his conduct generally, or he is excused from this obligation at the samindar's discretion. The tenure is liable to sale; and if the sale proceeds are insufficient to liquidate the arrears of rent, the defaulter's other property may be sold in order to make up the deficiency. In the event of the sale proceeds exceeding the amount of arrears, the tenure-holder is entitled to the balance. The lessee has the power of subletting his taluk, on the same conditions as those by which he is bound to the proprietor. The tenure is transferable and hereditary, and answerable for the personal debts of the tenant; it has been declared not voidable for arrears of rent, and the lease cannot be cancelled by the samindar. who must sell the property in order to recover his arrears. The seminder cannot object to the right of the lessee to sublet his tenure, and is bound to sanction a transfer on the payment of a certain fee.

'To facilitate the realization of arrears effect due from the paint tálukdárs, the samindár has been invested by Government with a summary process for realizing arrears by sale of the tenure, on presentation of a petition to the Collector, accompanied with a schedule of the amount due. This schedule is posted in some conspicuous place in the revenue court (kachári), together with a notice to the effect that, if the amount claimed is not paid by a specified date, the

tenure will be sold by auction. The sale purchaser acquires the entire rights and privileges possessed by the late holder, in the state in which they were acquired by him from the samindar, free from all encumbrances which may have accrued by any act of the defaulting proprietor or his representatives; unless the right of making such encumbrances shall have been expressly conferred on the holder. by a stipulation to that effect in the written engagements under which the táluk was originally held (vide section 11 of Regulation viii. of 1819). Nothing, however, authorizes the purchaser to eject a khudkásht rayat (resident and hereditary cultivator), or to cancel bona fide engagements made with such tenants by the late incumbent or his representative, except a regular suit. superior tenant, with a view to injure his inferior, purposely withholds the rent due to the samindar, the inferior holder can stay the sale of the taluk by depositing in court the amount due. Should the amount so lodged be due as rent from the inferior talukdar, it should be so stated at the time of making the deposit, and the amount will be credited to his rent account with his superior holder. If no rent is due from the depositor, then the amount is to be treated as a loan, the táluk itself being the security for the repayment of the sum. In this case the depositor is entitled to obtain immediate possession of the estate, and to retain it until he has recouped himself for the amount advanced out of the profits.

'Mukarraridars or chukandars.—By section 18 of Regulation viii, of 1703, all mukarraridars holding land of which they were not the actual proprietors, whose grants were obtained since the Company's accession to the diwari, and had never received the sanction of the Supreme Government, were dispossessed, and the Land Settlement was made with the actual proprietors of the soil. In cases where such mukarraridars had been in possession of their estates for upwards of twelve years, they received a life allowance. Mukarraridars, therefore, of an antiquity anterior to the Permanent Settlement are now no longer in existence. Mukarraridars created by the samindars subsequent to the Permanent Settlement are not very numerous in Rangpur District. They hold their lands subject to the payment of a fixed rate of rent, and their rights are generally defined in written documents. Mukarrari leases are generally given by landlords for small plots of land, on which dwelling-houses. factories, or other permanent buildings are erected, or for gardens. plantations, tanks, wells, and burning and burying grounds. The

hereditary nature of the tenure is almost invariably secured by express stipulation in the lease. The tenure is not liable to enhancement of rent.

'Istimraridars.—Istimrari tenures are very rare in Rangpur. The nature of the tenure is laid down in sections 49 and 50 of Regulation viii. of 1793. In its character and in the rights and privileges of the holders, it is almost identical with the mukarrari tenure last described. The holders, however, are liable to enhancement of rent, unless the contrary is stipulated in their agreements. If an istimrari or mukarrari tenure has been held at a fixed rate of rent from the time of the Permanent Settlement, the holder is not subject to ejectment, even by the purchaser at auction sale of an entire estate for arrears of revenue.

'Upanchaki.—The tenures known by this name are very numerous in Rangpur. They are created by the samindars, and bear date. some anterior and some subsequent to the Permanent Settlement.' According to the Deputy-Collector, 'nowhere else in Bengal have the samindars and proprietors succeeded in alienating such an extent of land as in Rangpur District. The upanchaki tenures are held subject to the payment of a nominal quit-rent, the rate of which is fixed in perpetuity; they are transferable and hereditary, and are generally granted to Brahmans and Muhammadan priests for religious or beneficiary purposes. They consist principally of debottar, sivottar, bráhmottar, bhogottar, pírpál, chirági, masjídi, and fakiráná lands. A debottar estate consists of lands granted for the support of a Hindu temple, or for the worship of the gods generally; sivottar are lands for the support of a temple dedicated especially to Siva or Mahádeva: bráhmottur are lands for the maintenance of Brahmans; bhogottar are lands for the maintenance of men of respectable Hindu castes other than Brahmans; pirpal lands are endowments in memory of Muhammadan saints; chirágí lands are grants for the purpose of keeping a light continually burning in a mosque; masjidi lands are grants for the support of a masjid; fakirana lands are endowments for the maintenance of indigent persons. These upanchaki tenures are saleable, but not voidable for arrears of rent.

'Majkuri is a tenure peculiar to Rangpur. It resembles the upanchaki tenures in every respect, except that it is liable to enhancement of rent.

^{&#}x27;Jotdárs.—In other parts of Bengal the word jotdár signifies an

actual cultivator; but in Rangpur District it is used to denote a middleman between the samindár and the actual cultivator, who has a right of occupancy, but is liable to enhancement of rent. This tenure is common in Rangpur, especially towards the east of the District. In pargand Baharband are several very large jotdárs, some of them being in receipt of an income of Rs. 50,000 or £5000 a year. The term of the lease by which the rent is fixed is usually for five or ten years. The tenure is transferable and hereditary. A superior jotdár can sublet his tenure to an inferior holder, transferring all the rights and privileges he himself enjoys from the samindár. A jotdár cannot be ousted from his holding, even on the expiration of his lease, except under a decree of the civil court; but when arrears of rent are adjudged against him, his tenure is liable to sale, and the lease can be annulled.

'Ijárádárs or thikádárs are common farmers, having no right of occupancy in the land beyond the term of their leases. The tenure is not liable to enhancement of rent during the continuance of the lease, but is voidable in the event of its falling into arrears. In some instances the proprietors, on granting the leases, receive a bonus of a year's rent in advance. In other cases they create mortgages by means of this tenure, which is then called thiká-zará-peshgi. They borrow considerable sums of money, and lease out their villages to the lender as security. The holder of a thiká-zará-peshgi retains possession of the villages made over to him until the amount advanced has been repaid, with interest, out of the proceeds. This tenure prevails largely throughout Rangpur District. An ijárádár cannot relinquish his tenure without the consent of the proprietor.

'SUBORDINATE INTERMEDIATE TENURES. — The holders of the superior intermediate tenures above mentioned can underlet their holdings to inferior tenants or farmers, and also transfer all the rights and privileges they themselves derive from the proprietors. These sub-tenants or farmers have the power of again subletting their lands to holders of the third degree, and so on. The prefix "dar" generally implies an under-tenant of the second degree; "se," one of the third; and "chahdram," one of the fourth degree. The rights of these under-tenants are of course limited by those of the persons from whom they derive their title.

'TENURES HELD BY ACTUAL CULTIVATORS.—There are several descriptions of cultivators in Rangpur District, with separate rights

and privileges, namely,—(1) cultivators (rayats) holding lands at fixed rates in perpetuity; (2) cultivators with a right of occupancy, but not holding at fixed rates; (3) tenants-at-will; (4) ádhiárs, or halvers; (5) korfá prajás, or cultivators of the samindár's private lands; (6) khudkásht, or resident and hereditary cultivators; (7) paikásht, or non-resident migratory cultivators; (8) chukandár, or under-cultivators; (9) mukarrari rayats; (10) maurúsi rayats; and (11) jangalburi rayats.

'Cultivators holding lands at a fixed rate of rent in perpetuity, and who have so held them since the Permanent Settlement, form about five per cent, of the actual cultivating class. Their holdings are known as "rayati jot;" they are transforable and hereditary, and are frequently sold in execution of decrees. The tenant cannot be ousted so long as he pays his rent. In case of dispute as to the right of the tenant to hold his land at a fixed rate of rent, if the holder can prove that the rent at which he holds his lands has not been changed for a period of twenty years before the commencement of the suit, there is a presumption of law that the land has been held at that rent since the Permanent Settlement, unless the landlord proves the contrary. If a cultivator holding land at fixed rates disposes of his tenure by private sale, gift, or otherwise, the new incumbent generally makes a nazaráná, or customary present, to have his name registered on the superior holder's rentroll. Cultivators with a right of occupancy in the soil, but liable to enhancement of rent, are such as have cultivated or held the same land for a period of twelve years, and number about twentyfive per cent. of the total cultivators. The superior holder can call on the tenant to pay enhanced rates, but only under certain restrictions, thus defined in section 19 of Act x. of 1859:-First, if the rate of rent paid by the tenant is below the prevailing rate paid by the same class of cultivators for adjoining lands of a similar description and with similar advantages; second, if the value of the produce or the productive powers of the land have been increased otherwise than by the agency or at the expense of the cultivator; third, if the quantity of land held by the tenant is proved by measurement to be greater than the quantity for which rent has been previously paid by him. Similarly, on the other hand, the tenant can claim an abatement of rent, (1) if the area of his holding has been diminished by diluvion or otherwise; (2) if the productive powers of the land have been decreased by any cause beyond the

power of the cultivator; and (3) if the quantity of land held by the tenant proves on measurement to be less than that for which he has previously paid rent. Ordinary tenants-at-will are estimated to number about forty per cent. of the agricultural population. As implied by the name, they have no right of occupancy in the soil; they can be ejected at the will of the landlord, and are subject to any enhancement of rent the proprietor may choose to impose. Adhidrs, or halvers, are a species of metayer tenantry who cultivate the lands of others, principally those who hold land at fixed rates of rent or with rights of occupancy, the produce being divided between the cultivator and the owner of the land. The proprietor of the land generally supplies the seed, which he receives back at harvest time. with interest, before the division of the crop is made. About ten per cent. of the cultivators of Rangpur District are estimated to belong to this class. Korfa prajás are those who cultivate the private lands of the proprietor, such as khámár, níj jot, or sír land. They pay a rent to the owners according to the terms agreed upon, but they have no rights in the land. Whatever may have been the period of their occupancy, they can be ejected at any time, and their rent enhanced at the will of the proprietor. About five per cent. of the Rangpur cultivators belong to this class. Chukandars are under-tenants who hold their lands from cultivators of a higher class, and can be ejected at the will of the superior tenant. This class comprises about fifteen per cent. of the whole cultivating body. Khudkásht rayats are hereditary husbandmen, who cultivate the lands attached to the village in which they reside. Paikasht rayats are husbandmen who cultivate lands attached to a village other than that in which they reside.

'In estates managed by the proprietors themselves, the cultivators hold their lands direct from the zamindárs; but in estates let out in farm, from middlemen. Every cultivator is entitled to a lease (patta) from the person to whom the rent is payable, setting forth the quantity of land comprised in his holding, the amount of annual rent payable, the instalments in which it is to be paid, the special stipulations and conditions on which he holds, and, if the rent is payable in kind, the proportion of the produce to be delivered, and the time and manner of payment. Mukarrari rayats hold their tenures under a special lease (patti), according to which their rent is subject neither to enhancement nor abatement. The nature of the tenure is hereditary; but unless it is distinctly stipulated

in the lease that the rent is to be fixed in perpetuity, the right of occupying the land at an unaltered rent is confined to the tenant during his lifetime, and does not extend to his heirs. A salami or nazaráná (customary present) is usually offered to the samindár on the occasion of his granting such leases. There are, however, very few of this class of cultivators in Rangpur District. A maurus! ravat holds his lands under an hereditary tenure. He is liable to enhancement of rent, unless otherwise stipulated in the lease; but as a matter of fact almost every lease is made to provide for the permanent fixity of the rent. Very few of this class of cultivators are found in Rangpur. Jangalburi rayats also are very rarely met with in the District. As their name implies, they are cultivators who clear jungle and waste lands for tillage. For the first few years they pay no rent at all; and afterwards a low rental. which is gradually increased to the full rate payable by other tenants in the neighbourhood.

REVENUE-FREE HOLDINGS.—By the ancient law of the country, the ruling power is entitled to a certain portion of the produce of every bigha of land, unless it gives up its rights in this respect either for a term or in perpetuity. Under native rule, grants were frequently made of the Government rights in the land, for the support of families of persons who had performed public services, for the maintenance of troops, or for religious purposes, etc. The British Government continued to the grantees or their heirs such of these grants as were hereditary, and were made prior to the Company's accession to the diwani. These are known by the name of badshahi or imperial grants. Hukumi grants are those other than badshahi. and were also numerous before the Company took over the financial administration of the country. Numerous grants of this description were made, not only by the samindars, but by the officers of Government appointed to the temporary superintendence of the collection of revenue, under the pretext that the produce of the land was to be applied to religious and charitable purposes. Had the British Government acted strictly according to the principles laid down, these grants, having been given by persons other than the sovereign power, could not be deemed valid. Lenity, however, induced the Government to adopt as a principle, that grants of the latter description previous to the date of the Company's accession to the diwini (12th August 1765), made by whatever authority, and whether by a writing or without writing, should be deemed valid.

provided that the grantee actually had bond fide obtained possession of the land so granted previous to the date above mentioned, and the land had not been subsequently rendered subject to the payment of revenue by the orders of Government. In the resumption proceedings of this District, 313 grants were declared valid, and entered in the register of revenue-free tenures; while 125 were resumed and settled with Government. A vast number of lákhiráj tenures below 100 bishds, which might have produced a revenue of Rs. 04.177. have been struck off; and the register is said to have once contained 20,000 entries of this description. The lákhiráj lands thus struck off without inquiry were of the nature of hukumi grants, not exceeding 100 bighds in area, and were included within the limits of the pargand, mause, or other division of estates, for which a settlement was made with the owners. The right of assessing them in the event of their being found invalid was reserved to the samindar with whom the Permanent Settlement was concluded. The grants were originally intended as endowments for religious and charitable institutions, but the present holders scarcely conform to the intention of the original grantors. In several instances, too, the samindars gave fictitious grants, in the name of their relatives and dependents, under pretext of charitable purposes, with a view to procure a livelihood from this resource in the event of their losing their samindaris. The samindar of Bhitarband had nearly 100 of such grants, which were all adjudged invalid, and resumed by the Resumption Court. Most of these hukumi rent free tenures, granted by persons incompetent by law to grant them, would have been proved invalid had they been investigated by the courts of competent jurisdiction, but the zamindars to whom the right of suing was reserved, having neglected to adopt in due time proper measures for their resumption, these grants have in a manner. owing to the expiry of the period fixed by the law of limitation, become valid tenures.

'RENT-FREE TENURES.—The rent-free tenures which are still granted by the samindar are chakran or service lands, made over for the maintenance of servants or dependents. Nearly every wealthy and influential samindar in the District makes over land in this way to his servants, who support themselves and their families out of the produce. The custom of remunerating servants by grants of land instead of by money wages has prevailed in India from time immemorial. Each menial domestic servant ordinarily receives

from 12 to 16 bighás of land (4 to 51 acres); the dhobá, or washerman, from 10 to 12 bighds (31 to 4 acres); napit, or barber, from 10 to 12 bighás (31 to 4 acres); mali, or gardener, from 4 to 5 bighás (11 to 12 acres); kumár, or potter, from 10 to 20 bighás (31 to 62 acres); sutraddr, or carpenter, the same; paik, or messenger, from 10 to 12 bighás (3\frac{1}{2} to 4 acres); sardár, or head domestic servant, from 18 to 24 bighás (6 to 8 acres); kahár, or palanquin bearer, 4 bighás (11 acres); mirdhá, or land-measurer, from 10 to 12 bighás (31 to 4 acres); dafadárs, from 10 to 20 bighás (31 to 62 acres). These men hold their lands so long as they continue to perform the services in consideration of which they received them. Another kind of rent-free holding, known as beján káchá, is common in some parts of Rangpur, and consists in the grant of a small plot of land rent-free to each cultivator to serve as a nursery for his seedlings. The quantity thus granted usually amounts to one káthá or 3 poles for every 2 bighás (two-thirds of an acre) held by the cultivator.'

RATES OF RENT.—The following statement, showing the prevailing rates of rent in 26 different parganás of Rangpur District, paid by the actual cultivators for the ordinary descriptions of land growing various crops, is taken from a special return furnished to the Government of Bengal in August 1872. The size of the bighá varies in different parganás; and the following list exhibits the rates per local bighá and also per standard English acre:—

- (1) PATILADAHA (size of bighá, 80 cubits, i.e. the Government standard bighá of 14,400 square feet): one-crop rice land, Rs. r. 1. o per bighá, or 6s. 4½d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 1. 1. o per bighá, or 6s. 4½d. per acre; khesári land, Rs. 1. 1. o per bighá, or 6s. 4½d. per acre; jute land, Rs. 3. 8. o per bighá, or £1, 1s. od. per acre; tobacco land, Rs. 3 per bighá, or 18s. per acre; sugar-cane land, Rs. 5 per bighá, or £1, 1os. od. per acre; mustard land, Rs. 1. 1. o per bighá, or 6s. 4½d. per acre; onion land, Rs. 1. 4. o per bighá, or 7s. 6d. per acre; báigun (solanum melongena) land, Rs. 5 per bighá, or £1, 1os. od. per acre.
- (2) BAHARBAND (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, R. 1 to Rs. 1. 4. o per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 5s. $7\frac{1}{8}$ d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 1. 8. o per bighá, or 6s. 9d. per acre; thesárí, Rs. 1. 8. o per bighá, or 6s. 9d. per acre; tobacco, from R. 1 to Rs. 1. 8. o per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 6s. 9d. per acre; tobacco, from R. 1 to Rs. 1. 8. o per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 6s. 9d. per acre; sugar-cane, Rs. 1. 8. o to Rs. 2, or from 6s. 9d. to 9s. per acre;

betel-nut, from Rs. 2 to Rs. 3, or from 9s. to 13s. 6d. per acre; Mn, from Rs. 3 to Rs. 4, or from 13s. 6d. to 18s. per acre; mustard, from R. 1 to Rs. 1. 8. o per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 6s. 9d. per acre; onion, R. 1 per bighá, or 4s. 6d. per acre; baigun, Rs. 1. 8. o per bighá, or 6s. 9d. per acre.

(3) MURHTIPUR (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighá, or 6s. 9d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; khesárí, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 6 per bighá, or £1, 7s. od. per acre; pán, Rs. 7 per bighá, or £1, 11s. 6d. per acre; mustard, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; onion, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; báigun, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre.

(4) ISLAMABAD (size of local bighá, 80 cubits): one-crop rice land, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or 7s. 6d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or 7s. 6d. per acre; khesárí, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per highá, or 7s. 6d. per acre; jute, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or 7s. 6d. per acre; indicate; indicat

(5) WARIGACHHA (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one crop rice land, R. 1 per bighá, or 4s. 6d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighá, or 6s. 9d. per acre; khesárí, 12 ánnás per bighá, or 3s. 4dd. per acre; jute, Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighá, or 6s. 9d. per acre; tobaceo, Rs. 1. 8. p. per bighá; or 6s. 9d. per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 5 per bighá, or £1, 2s. 6d. per acre; pán, Rs. 7 per bighá, or £1, 11s. 6d. per acre; mustard, Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighá, or 6s. 9d. per acre; báigun, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre.

(6) Tulsighat (size of local bighá, 87 cubits): one-crop rice land, Rs. 1. 12. 0 to Rs. 2 per bighá, or from 95. 7½d. to 115. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 115. per acre; thesárí, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 115. per acre; jute, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 115. per acre; sugar-cane, Rs. 3 per bighá, or 165. 6d. per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 3 per bighá, or 165. 6d. per acre; mustard, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 115. per acre; onion, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 115. per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 115. per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 115. per acre; onion, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 115. per acre.

(7) PALASBARI (size of local bighá, 96 cubits): one-crop rice land, 12 ánnás to Rs. 1 per bighá, or from 3s. 9d. to 5s. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre; khasárí, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre; jute, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre;

- tobacco, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre; sugar-cane, from Rs. 3 to Rs. 4 per bighá, or from 15s. to £1 per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 2. 8. 0 per bighá, or 12s. 6d. per acre; pán, from Rs. 9 to Rs. 11 per bighá, or from £2, 5s. od. to £2, 15s. od. per acre; mustard, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre; onion, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre; báigun, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre.
- (8) SIKSAHAR (size of local bighá, 84 cubits): one-crop rice land, from 12 ánnás to Rs. 1. 12. o per bighá, or from 48. 3\frac{3}{4}\text{d}. to 108. 0\frac{3}{4}\text{d}.
 per acre; two-crop rice land, from Rs. 1. 6. o to Rs. 2. 8. o per bighá, or from 78. 11\text{d}. to 148. 4\frac{1}{4}\text{d}. per acre; khesári, from Rs. 1. 6. o to Rs. 2. 8. o per bighá, or from 78. 11\text{d}. to 148. 4\frac{1}{4}\text{d}. per acre; jute, from 12 ánnás to Rs. 1. 12. o per bighá, or from 48. 3\frac{3}{4}\text{d}. to 108. 0\frac{3}{4}\text{d}.
 per acre; tobacco, from Rs. 1. 6. o to Rs. 2. 8. o per bighá, or from 78. 11\text{d}. to 148. 4\frac{1}{4}\text{d}. per acre; sugar-cane, from Rs. 2. 8. o to Rs. 4
 per bighá, or from 148. 4\frac{1}{4}\text{d}. to \(\mathcal{L}\text{1}, 38. o\text{d}. per acre; betel-nut, from Rs. 4 to Rs. 5 per bighá, or from \(\mathcal{L}\text{1}, 38. o\text{d}. to \(\mathcal{L}\text{1}, 88. o\text{d}. per acre; \(p\delta\text{h}\text{n}\text{from Rs. 10 to Rs. 11 per bighá, or from \(\mathcal{L}\text{2}, 178. 6\text{d}. to \(\mathcal{L}\text{3}, 38. 3\text{d}. per acre; báigun, Rs. 1. 6. o per bighá, or 78. 11\text{d}. per acre.
- (9) BAJITPUR (size of local bighá, 84 cubits): one-crop rice land, Rs. 1 per bighá, or 5s. 9d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; khesárí, R. 1 per bighá, or 5s. 9d. per acre; jute, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; sugar-cane, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; mustard, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; potato, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; onion, R. 1 per bighá, or 5s. 9d. per acre; báigun, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre;
- (10) BAJITNAGAR (size of local bighá, 84 cubits): one-crop rice land, R. 1 per bighá, or 5s. 9d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; khesári, R. 1 per bighá, or 5s. 9d. per acre; jute, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; sugar-cane, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; mustard, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; postato, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; postato, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; bighá, or 5s. 9d. per acre; báigun, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. an acre.
- (11) POLADASI (9 annás share; size of local bighá, 84 cubits): one-crop rice land, Rs. 1. 8. o per bighá, or 8s. 7 d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 1. 12. o per bighá, or 10s. o d. per acre; khesárí,

- Rs. 1. 8. o per bighá, or 8s. 7\frac{1}{3}d. per acre; jute, Rs. 1. 12. o per bighá, or 10s. 0\frac{2}{3}d. per acre; tobacco, Rs. 1. 12. o per bighá, or 10s. 0\frac{2}{3}d. per acre; sugar-cane, Rs. 1. 12. o per bighá, or 10s. 0\frac{2}{3}d. per acre; mustard, Rs. 1. 12. o per bighá, or 10s. 0\frac{2}{3}d. per acre; onion, Rs. 1. 8. o per bighá, or 8s. 7\frac{1}{3}d. per acre.
- (12) POLADASI (7 ánnás share; size of local bighá, 87 cubits): one-crop rice land, R. 1 per bighá, or 58. 6d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 118. per acre; khesárí, R. 1 per bighá, or 58. 6d. per acre; jute, R. 1 per bighá, or 58. 6d. per acre; tobacco, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 118. per acre; sugar-cane, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 118. per acre; ginger, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 118. per acre; potato, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 118. per acre; potato, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 118. per acre; potato, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 118. per acre; potato, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 118. per acre; báigun, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 118. per acre; báigun, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 118. per acre.
- (13) IDRAKPUR (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, R. 1 per bighá, or 4s. 6d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; khesárí, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; jute, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; tobacco, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 7. 8. 0 per bighá, or £1, 13s. 9d. per acre; mustard, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; onion, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; báigun, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre.
- (14) PERRI KHALISHA (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, R. 1 to Rs. 1. 4. o per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7½d. per acre; two-crop rice land, from Rs. 1. 8. o to Rs. 1. 12. o per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 7s. 10½d. per acre; jute, Rs. 1. 8. o to Rs. 1. 12. o per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 7s. 10½d. per acre; sugarcane, Rs. 1. 8. o to Rs. 1. 12. o per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 7s. 10½d. per acre; betel-nut, from Rs. 1. 8. o to Rs. 1. 12. o per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 7s. 10½d. per acre; onion, R. 1 to Rs. 1. 4. o per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7½d. per acre.
- (15) PERRI (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, from R. I to Rs. I. 4. o per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7\frac{1}{2}d. per acre; two-crop rice land, from Rs. I. 8. o to Rs. I. 12. o per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 7s. 10\frac{1}{2}d. per acre; jute, from Rs. I. 8. o to Rs. I. 12. o per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 7s. 10\frac{1}{2}d. per acre; sugar-cane, from Rs. I. 8. o to Rs. I. 12. o per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 7s. 10\frac{1}{2}d. per acre; betel-nut, from Rs. I. 8. o to Rs. I. 12. o per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 7s. 10\frac{1}{2}d. per acre; onion, from R. I to Rs. I. 4. o per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7\frac{1}{2}d. per acre.

- (16) ALIHAT (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, from R. 1 to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7½d. per acre; two-crop rice land, from Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 1. 12. 0 per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 7s. 10½d. per acre; jute, from Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 1. 12. 0 per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 7s. 10½d. per acre; sugarcane, from Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 1. 12. 0 per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 7s. 10½d. per acre; betel-nut, from Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 1. 12. 0 per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 7s. 10½d. per acre; onion, from R. 1 to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7½d. per acre.
- (17) AMDAHAR (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, R. 1 per bighá, or 4s. 6d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or 5s. 7½d. per acre; jute, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or 5s. 7½d. per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; mustard, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or 5s. 7½d. per acre; báigun, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre.
- (18) ALIGAON (size of local bighá, 87 cubits): one-crop rice land, from 4 dnnás to 6 ánnás per bighá, or from 1s. 4½d. to 2s. 0¾d. per acre; two-crop rice land, from 15 ánnás to R. 1 per bighá, or from 5s. 2d. to 5s. 6d. per acre; khesárí, from 15 ánnás to R. 1 per bighá, or from 5s. 2d. to 5s. 6d. per acre; jute, from 15 ánnás to R. 1 per bighá, or from 5s. 2d. to 5s. 6d. per acre; mustard, from 15 ánnás to R. 1 per bighá, or from 5s. 2d. to 5s. 6d. per acre; onion, from 4 ánnás to 6 ánnás per bighá, or from 1s. 4½d. to 2s. 0¾d. per acre.
- (19) BARISAKPALA (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, from R. 1 to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7½d. per acre; two-crop rice land, from Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 2 per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 9s. per acre; khesárí, from R. 1. 0. 0 to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7½d. per acre; jute, from R. 1 to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7½d. per acre; pán, Rs. 5 per bighá, or £1, 2s. 6d. per acre; mustard, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or 5s. 7½d. per acre; onion, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or 5s. 7½d. per acre;
- (20) MAIMUNTHPUR (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, from R. 1 to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7½d. per acre; two-crop rice land, from Rs. 1. 8. 0 to Rs. 2 per bighá, or from 6s. 9d. to 9s. per acre; khesárí, from R. 1. 0. 0 to Rs. 1 4. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7½d. per acre; jute, from R. 1. 0. 0 to Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7½d. per acre; pán, Rs. 5 per bighá, or £1, 2s. 6d. per acre;

mustard, Rs. 1. 4. o per bighá, or 5s. 7¹/₂d. per acre; onion, Rs. 1. 4. o per bighá, or 5s. 7¹/₂d. per acre.

- (21) BABUNPUR (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, from R. 1 to Rs. 1. 10. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 7s. 3d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; khesárí, from R. 1 to Rs. 1. 10. 0 per bighá, or from 4s. 6d. to 7s. 3d. per acre; jute, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; sugar-cane, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 5 per bighá, or £1, 2s. 6d. per acre; mustard, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; onion, R. 1 to Rs. 1. 10. 0 per bighá, or 5s. 9d. to 7s. 3d. per acre; báigun, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre.
- (22) KHAMAR MAHAL (size of local bighá, 84 cubits): one-crop rice land, R. 1 per bighá, or 5s. 9d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; khesárí, R. 1 per bighá, or 5s. 9d. per acre; jute, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; tobacco, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre; onion, R. 1. 0. 0 per bighá, or 5s. 9d. per acre; and báigun, Rs. 2. 0. 0 per bighá, or 11s. 6d. per acre.
- (23) BAHAMAN KUNDA (size of local bighd, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, Rs. 1. 4. 0 per bighd, or 5s. 7\frac{1}{2}d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighd, or 6s. 9d. per acre; sugar-cane, Rs. 1. 8. 0 per bighd, or 6s. 9d. per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 5 per bighd, or £1, 2s. 6d. per acre; pan, Rs. 9 per bighd, or £2, 0s. 6d. per acre.
- (24) SHERPUR (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, from 9 ánnás to Rs. 1. 9. o per bighá, or from 2s. 6 dd. to 7s. 0 dd. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 2. 4. o per bighá, or 10s. 1 dd. per acre; jute, Rs. 2. 4. o per bighá, or 10s. 1 dd. per acre; sugar-cane, Rs. 2. 4. o per bighá, or 10s. 1 dd. per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 5 per bighá, or £1, 2s. 6d. per acre; pán, Rs. 5. 8. o per bighá, or £1, 4s. 9d. per acre; mustard, from 9 ánnás to Rs. 1. 9. o per bighá, or from 2s. 6 dd. to 7s. 0 dd. per acre; onion, from 9 ánnás to Rs. 1. 9. o per bighá, or from 2s. 6 dd. to 7s. 0 dd. per acre; báigun, Rs. 2. 4. o per bighá, or 10s. 1 dd. per acre.
- (25) PAIKA (size of local bighá, 96 cubits): one-crop rice land, from 12 dnnás to R. 1 per bighá, or from 3s. 9d. to 5s. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre; hhesárí, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre; tobacco, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre; tobacco, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre; sugar-cane, from Rs. 3 to Rs. 4 per bighá, or from 15s. to £1 per acre; betel-nut, Rs. 2.8. 0 per vol. vil.

bighá, or 128. 6d. per acre; pán, Rs. 9 to Rs. 11 per bighá, or from £1, 5s. od. to £1, 15s. od. per acre; mustard, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre; onion, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre; báigun, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 10s. per acre.

(26) AMLAGACHHI (size of local bighá, 104 cubits): one-crop rice land, from 6 ánnás to R. 1 per bighá, or from 1s. 8½d. to 4s. 6d. per acre; two-crop rice land, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; jute, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; sugar-cane, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; mustard, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; potato, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre; báigua, Rs. 2 per bighá, or 9s. per acre.

Rents are paid in money, except in cases where the land is held under a bhag or metayer tenure, when payment is made in kind. The Collector states that there is no reason for supposing that Act x. of 1859 (the Rent Law of Bengal) has resulted in a general enhancement of rents in Rangpur, nor have the operations of that Act been specially noticeable in any particular part of the District. This is accounted for by the fact that only a small proportion of the husbandmen are possessed of rights of occupancy. It is estimated that at least three-fourths of the cultivators hold their lands on terminable leases, and on the expiry of their engagements have to make the best bargain they can with their There is reason to believe, however, that enhanced rents are more generally obtained through the exaction of irregular cesses (abwabs) on the part of the proprietors, than by any attempts to change long existing rates. The tenant's fear of being dragged into a lawsuit with his landlord causes him to bear a considerable amount of pressure in silence. The irregular cesses reported to be most commonly levied at the present day are as follow:—(1) Mangan, a cess levied by the samindár on the marriage or death of any member of his family; (2) agámuní, a cess levied on the occasion of the samindar visiting his estates; (3) annaprasan, a cess levied on the occasion of the weaning of the samindar's children: (4) sádhi salámi, a cess levied on the occasion of the marriage of the samindar; (5) sadhunkul, a cess levied on the occasion of the conception of the samindar's wife; (6) battá, exchange on coin paid in as rent; (7) narmaná, see paid to the zamindár on the tenant's clearing waste land, and also if it is shown by measurement that the latter holds more land than is specified in his engagements; (8) marchá, a present to the samindár on the occasion of the marriage of the tenant or of his children; (9) *ijdrdddri*, a cess levied by farmers of estates as their perquisite, and sometimes also by the proprietors.

MANURE.—Manure is only in general use in the cultivation of the more valuable crops, such as sugar-cane, tobacco, jute, oil-seeds, pan, etc. The substances used are cow-dung and oil-cake, either singly or mixed together in the proportion of three parts of the former to one of the latter, together with indigo-weed and decaying vegetable matter obtained from the marshes and rivers. Eighteen to twenty maunds of cow-dung, if used alone, is considered a liberal allowance of manure for a standard bigha of land (equal to from about 40 to 44 hundredweights per acre); or, if mixed with oil-cake, from twelve to fourteen maunds per bighd (equal to from 26 to 30 hundredweights per acre. For sugar-cane lands, as much as fifteen maunds of oil-cake is sometimes allowed per bighá (about 33 hundredweights per acre). In pan gardens, ten maunds of oil-cake mixed with fresh earth are allowed per bighá (22 hundredweights per acre). Indigo-weed is chiefly used for manuring lands which grow tobacco and oil-seeds, but the supply is scarce. Four cart-loads are sufficient for a single bighá. House refuse, consisting principally of ashes, and decaying vegetable matter from the marshes and swamps, are also spread upon the land, the quantity being regulated according to the amount that can be procured without pecuniary outlay. In the same way, cow-dung is not bought and sold in Rangpur District, but what remains in the homestead after supplying the family with fuel is spread upon the fields. Four maunds (3 hundredweights) of oil-cake or forty cart-loads of indigo-weed sell for about Rs. 3 (6s.). The only other methods adopted for invigorating the soil are burning jungle or stubble on it (a common practice); or allowing it to remain fallow, which is seldom done, except in the case of land growing ginger, turmeric, or sugar-cane. Ginger or turmeric land is allowed to remain fallow for two, three, or even five years, and in this state it is called khil. It is not customary to grow tobacco for two consecutive years on the same land, but otherwise no system of rotation of crops is known or practised in Rangpur District. Each cultivator sows his crops at the dictates merely of custom or prejudice, and will not vary the traditional routine for a crop to which he has not been accustomed, even though to do so would procure him certain gain. Owing to the moist nature of the soil, artificial irrigation is not necessary in this District. The only crop which is irrigated at all is tobacco, and this but to a very small extent, from shallow wells or water-pits.

NATURAL CALAMITIES.—Blights are of frequent occurrence in Rangpur, but fortunately they are partial in their operation, destroying only a few particular crops, and do not attack rice, the great staple of the District. The crops which principally suffer are kalái and mustard, which are attacked by insects called mendá and áchá. In 1870 the kalái crop throughout the eastern portion of the District was completely destroyed by these caterpillars. The cultivators attributed their misfortune to the unusually heavy rains in June and July 1870. In the same year, the mustard crop was also attacked, and in many parts was completely destroyed. Of late years the mango crop has been blighted by a small insect, which appears to be generated inside the fruit, and to eat its way out on the mango ripening. Locusts also occasionally visit the District, committing great damage on the crops in the course of their progress.

· FLOODS.—Rangpur District is liable to floods, but it is seldom that they cause any very serious injury to the crops. The last occasion on which inundation resulted in actual famine was in the disastrous year 1194 B.S. (1787-88 A.D.) An account of the great flood and subsequent calamities of that year will be found on a subsequent page. Floods occur when heavy rains in the Himálayan ranges to the north are supplemented by continued wet weather in the District itself. Although in 1870 the local rains are said to have been almost unprecedentedly heavy, and the rivers and watercourses were all brim full, no damage whatever was done, and the winter rice crop of the year was an unusually fine one. It is the eastern part of the District which is principally subject to river It lies comparatively low, and is intersected by numerous rivers. The largest of these rivers, the Brahmaputra, Dharlá. and Tistá, are continually shifting their channels, and frequently overflow the country. Unfortunately, unlike the Nile, the matter held in suspension by these rivers, and annually deposited on the land on the abatement of the floods, is a sandy silt, which only becomes productive in course of time. It is the local rainfall which fertilizes the soil, and on this alone depends the productiveness of the crops. Rangpur is fortunate in its natural configuration; it has a good proportion of high as well as of low lands, with different species of rice growing on each. By this distribution, the injury

caused by the heaviest local rainfall to the crops in the lower levels can to a considerable extent be counterbalanced by the increased fertility of the higher lands. The experience of this District seems to show that famine is only to be dreaded as the result of inundation, when it is the joint result of excessive local rainfall combined with the swelling of the mountain torrents to the north. As above stated, the only year in which it has been ascertained that the injury from this cause was so serious as to produce famine, was in 1787-88. About thirty years ago, some heavy floods took place, but they do not appear to have seriously affected the general harvest. In 1856, the crops on the low-lying parts of Rangpur were destroyed by inundation, but the produce from the other tracts was sufficient to avert any extreme distress.

There are no important embankments in Rangpur District, or any other protective works against floods; and, in the opinion of the Collector, 'it is most fortunate that there are none, as such works generally effect more mischief than they obviate. They prevent the river water reaching land where it may be essential that it should go, and when an emergency does occur, they generally give way to the flood, and render the violence of the pent-up water ten times more destructive than it would have been had the river been allowed to spread gradually over the whole surface of the country.'

DROUGHTS.—The Collector, in 1871, in his report to me, instanced only three cases of drought having occurred within the previous forty years. These were in 1857-58, 1862-63, and in 1866-67, but in none of these years was the damage such as to affect seriously the general harvest of the District. Prices of food, however, rose greatly, and considerable distress was experienced by the poorest classes, but this was caused more by the demand from other Districts, and the consequent exportation of rice, than by any real deficiency in the out-turn of the local crops.

THE CALAMITIES OF 1787-88.—As far as can be ascertained from the Collectorate records, the only instance of actual famine having been experienced in Rangpur District during the period which they cover, was in the Bengalí year 1194 (1787-88 A.D.). Unfortunately the correspondence relating to 1770 (the year of the great Bengal famine) is not to be found, and no information is obtainable showing the extent to which the terrible scarcity of that year was felt in this District; nor do the records give any information as to whether the famine of 1783-84 extended to Rangpur. The following ac-

count of the calamities of 1787-88 is furnished to me by the Collector from information derived from the District records. I quote almost verbatim from the Collector's report:—

'The first intimation disclosed in the records of the disasters of 1787-88, is that on the 28th May the samindars of Kochwara attended in a body on the Collector, and presented a petition to him, while he was engaged in forming a Land Settlement for the year. Their petition set forth that three months' incessant rain had entirely destroyed the rabi or spring harvest, and that they were utterly unable to enter into fresh engagements for their lands based upon the amount of revenue paid by them in previous years. They besought the Collector that an investigation might be made into their losses, and that the new assessment should be made according to the actual state of their lands. Their application, however, does not appear to have been very favourably received in the first instance; and repeated petitions of a similar nature were subsequently made, representing that the rain continued unceasingly. and the cultivators were in great distress and were abandoning their fields in large numbers, while the cultivation of the kharif or winter rice crop was hardly possible, owing to the overflow of the rivers. On the other hand, the Collector maintained that as there were high as well as low lands in the District, and as some parts, such as Idrákpur, were composed almost exclusively of high lands, the profits from these should counterbalance the losses on the others. The answer of the petitioners was, that the low lands were entirely under water, and that even in the higher low lands the crops were destroyed after a few days' submersion. They alleged that the incessant rain prevented the seed from germinating, and that even the high lands, which they had attempted to bring under cultivation. could not be properly attended to or weeded, and that, in consequence of the growth of weeds and jungle, which had choked the rice, all such lands had been turned into pasture for the cattle. Although, under the circumstances, exaggeration must be looked for in the statements made by the samindars, yet the large remissions of revenue finally made, even where there were high as well as low lands, show that they contained a considerable amount of truth. The samindars in the central part of the District alone demanded to be allowed deductions from their revenue to the extent of Rs. 80,000, in respect of their losses on the rabi or spring crops only.

'The whole matter was referred to the Board of Revenue. The first letter of the Board on the subject, which bears date the 15th Iune, states that they did not apprehend any distress to the samindars from the excessive rains, and that even if such should prove to be the consequence, they could not consider inclemencies of season as an admissible plea for an abatement of the land revenue. The violence of the rains, however, continued; the samindars refused to accept the settlement of their lands at the terms offered to them, and no one would come forward to farm the District. Accordingly a staff of surveyors (ámins) was deputed to inquire into the extent of the losses sustained, and the zamindars continued to hold their estates on the understanding that they would be allowed remissions corresponding to their losses, on the termination of the inquiry. On the 29th July the Collector wrote to the Board that the unseasonable rains, which had commenced on the 26th March, and which had continued with unabated vehemence to the destruction of the whole rabi crops on the low lands, had entirely ceased for the past ten or twelve days, allowing the inundation to subside, otherwise the most disastrous consequences would have ensued. He reported that in all parts of the District the cultivators had been obliged to construct platforms to save themselves and their families from drowning, but that many lives had been lost. Since the rains had abated, however, the rayats generally had commenced the cultivation of the kharif or winter crop. The Collector added that, through fear of driving them away, he was collecting the revenue with great moderation, and was granting the samindars extension of time to make their payments beyond the period allowed by the Regulations, being persuaded that in such an unusual emergency he might depart from general rules, an adherence to which would be detrimental to the public welfare.

'The fair weather was of short duration. The rains set in again with renewed violence on the 1st August, just as the cultivators were transplanting the young rice; the rivers again overflowed their banks, and in a few days the country was in the same state of distress as that which in the earlier part of the season had caused so much alarm. The Board of Revenue at length recognised the critical state of affairs, acknowledged it to be their duty to show the renters and landholders every reasonable indulgence in their power, and authorized the Collector to grant any suspension of the revenue he might find necessary. Indeed, it was beyond his

power to do otherwise than grant suspensions, as the land revenue collections for the year were at an utter stand-still, except in a few places which from their elevated situation had escaped the general wreck.

But the worst was yet to come. The Tista, at all times an erratic river, had for long rolled its main stream through the western part of Rangpur and through Dinájpur, till it mingled its waters with the Atrái and other streams, and finally made its way into the Padmá or Ganges. At the same time it threw off a small branch in the northern part of Rangpur, which found its way by a circuitous course past Ulipur to the main stream of the Brahmaputra, a little farther north than the place where the waters of the Ghaghat found an exit into the same river. Suddenly the main branch of the Tístá, swelled by the incessant rains, swept down from the hills such vast masses of sand as to form a bar in its course, and, bursting its banks, the Tista forced its way into the Ghaghat. The channel of this latter stream was utterly inadequate to carry off this vast accession to its waters; the water of the Tista, accordingly, spread itself over the whole District, causing immense destruction to life and property, until it succeeded in cutting for itself a new and capacious channel, through which the river now flows. This great inundation occurred on the 27th August; and on the 2d September the Collector reported to the Board of Revenue that "multitudes of men, women, children, and cattle have perished in the floods; and in many places whole villages have been so completely swept away, as not to leave the smallest trace whereby to determine that the ground has been occupied." These calamities culminated in a famine. The coarsest rice, which had before been extraordinarily cheap, rose rapidly in price to from 23 to 20 sers per rupee (from 4s. 9d. to 5s. 5d. per hundredweight), and was difficult to procure even at this rate. The Collector endeavoured to alleviate the distress by stopping all exportation of grain, and caused large quantities of rice to be transported from the large grain marts into the interior of the District. where it was most wanted; but this embargo was taken off by order of the Board of Revenue early in October. Collections of revenue were suspended for a period of two months; and provision was made for feeding the starving poor who were daily flocking into the town.

'The waters at last subsided, leaving the kharif crop, which at first had given promise of an excellent harvest, considerably injured, but

not wholly destroyed, as had been anticipated. Six weeks of fine weather and the most careful attention to the young crop raised the expectation that the harvest yet might be a fair one. But the calamities of the season were not yet over, and a cyclone next swept over the stricken country. Early on the morning of the 2d November, just as the rice was getting into ear, the wind began to blow with great violence from the north-east, attended by heavy rain, and continued to increase in force until the afternoon, when the wind suddenly changed to the east, and came on to blow a furious hurricane, which lasted for about ten hours. Hundreds of trees were blown down or torn up by the roots; the bungalows of the Europeans were almost all unroofed, and there was scarcely a thatched house lest standing. Upwards of six thousand poor were at this time in receipt of daily rations of rice at the Civil Station, and of these, forty died in the course of the night near the Collector's house. The mortality in the town of Rangpur was much greater. It was estimated that in the course of this disastrous year Rangpur District lost one-sixth of its inhabitants. In pargand Panga half the population were gone.

'The assessment of the District was finally settled with a fair consideration for the losses proved to have been actually sustained. The District records make no mention of any other important occurrence in Rangpur in this year, except the carrying into execution of the orders of the Governor-General in Council "to obviate the difficulties said to arise from the excessive dearness of grain." The Collectors of Rangpur and other distressed Districts were instructed to ascertain the amount of grain in store in the various marts and granaries of their Districts, and to transmit fortnightly prices-current to the Board of Revenue, to be laid before the Governor-General in Council. F.very impediment in the way of free exportation of grain on the part of the merchants was directed to be removed, but at the same time penalties were proclaimed against monopolists. The Collectors were instructed, upon complaints of the refusal of any one having grain in store to sell it at current prices, to ascertain whether he had more than was necessary for his own consumption and the probable wants of the locality; and if so, to put up the grain to auction in small lots. It was not till the 4th June 1788 that the Collector was directed to desist from interfering in any way with the purchase, sale, or transport of grain. The investigations made into the losses of the year resulted in the remission of Government revenue to the extent of sikká rupees 234,622, or £25,417, out of a total assessment of sikká rupees 1,242,484, or £134,602.'

The Bengal scarcity of 1866 did not reach famine point in Rangpur District, although the high prices which prevailed in that year. owing to the demand from other Districts, caused considerable distress and inconvenience. At the beginning of November 1866, just before the gathering of the winter rice harvest, prices were at their highest, and ordinary rice was selling at eight sers for the rupee, or 135. 8d. per hundredweight; while the very cheapest description was as dear as 9\frac{1}{2} sers for the rupee, or 11s. 6d. a hundredweight. These extreme prices only lasted for a short time, and dropped immediately on the gathering in of the new crop. The scarcity never amounted to famine, so as to render it necessary to invoke Government aid; and in 1871 the Collector reported to me that local grain-prices had quite returned to what were regarded as ordinary rates prior to 1866, if indeed they were not somewhat lower than the former rates. The famine of 1874, however, was felt much more severely; but prompt Government aid, in the shape of relief works to provide labour for the able-bodied whose crops had been destroyed, and charitable food depôts for the gratuitous distribution of food to the aged and sick, kept actual starvation away from even the very poorest.

FAMINE WARNINGS.—In 1871 the Collector reported to me that he was of opinion, judging from his experience of the year 1866, that if the price of rice should rise as high as eight sers for the rupee, or 13s. 8d. a hundredweight, in January or February, shortly after the reaping of the great winter rice crop, the prospect would have become sufficiently serious to justify the intervention of Government. With such rates prevailing, the winter crop must have been very scanty, and the chances of a spring crop very poor. The Collector states that if prices remained for any length of time as high as eight sers for the rupee, or 13s. 8d. a hundredweight, and if there were not an absolute certainty that importations would take place and cause rates to fall, it would in his opinion be the duty of the Government to take immediate measures to provide grain for those who would shortly become dependent on State relief. The Collector thinks that were Government relief operations confined to buying food in the District and distributing it among the starving. it would probably have the effect of enhancing prices still further. This might induce neighbouring Districts to pour in supplies; but unless there was certain knowledge of the existence of such stores, and of their becoming available for the District, the Collector considers that it would be the duty of Government to import sufficient food from other Districts, to keep prices at an equilibrium till succour could be obtained from more distant parts. If it imported too much, prices would fall, and the confidence of the merchants might be shaken, and private enterprise brought to a stop. If it did not import at all, the scarcity might turn into famine even for the provident portion of the community, and irretrievable disaster might ensue.

The surest signs of approaching famine in Rangpur District would be the high prices of food-grain, taken in conjunction with the events of the season. Crime and mendicancy would become more frequent, and the price of all articles convertible into food by sale would quickly fall. Wages would also fall at the same time; and the Collector would expect, under the circumstances, to see a very considerable emigration to neighbouring Districts, where labour is dearer and in more demand. The chief food of the people is rice. The agriculturists who raise dus rice retain it mostly for their own consumption. All other classes are mainly dependent on the áman or winter rice crop for their food supply, which forms the great harvest of the year. The áman or winter rice crop, even if only a moderate one, would suffice for the subsistence of the people in the event of the total loss of the dus or autumn crop, provided they had not exported the whole surplus stocks. The value of the aus crop, if it were a good one, would probably be sufficient to procure food for the people, and avert actual famine, even in the event of the total failure of the aman or winter crop. The crops grown, however, being of a very miscellaneous nature, the local produce would have to be exchanged for the cheapest form of food obtainable from other Districts.

To avert impending famine, the Collector considers that one of two things must be done, and that quickly. Either the food must be taken to the people, or the people to the food; and that in practice both courses would have to be followed, but that neither would be practicable in Rangpur unless the means of communication were improved. In certain parts of the District nothing but disaster could be anticipated. The navigation of the rivers is difficult, and, with the exception of the Brahmaputra, Tístá, and Pharlá,

is only practicable during a very short period of the year. In the rains, too, the current of the large rivers is so strong that ordinary boats can hardly make any way against stream, unless assisted by favourable winds. In the case of floods resulting in a more complete destruction of the áman rice crop than occurred in 1787, the Collector expresses his opinion that importation would be impracticable, except with such delays as would render it fruitless. He states that not a single road in the District would be passable, as sufficiently proved by their condition during the rains of ordinary years. The bridges, with but few exceptions, are constructed of timber, and are very frail. In a serious inundation they would be washed away; and the roads being only slightly embanked and of a sandy soil, would in all probability be scarcely traceable. In such an emergency, the existence of a high causeway, amply provided with masonry bridges, would be the means of greatly mitigating the inevitable distress. Better road accommodation would also be very valuable in years of drought. The Collector states (1871) that notwithstanding the large surplus revenue of the District, the sum allowed for public works barely suffices to keep up the roads, even in their present decayed condition. The Collector's report to me was written in 1871, but since then much has been done towards improving the state of the communications. During the scarcity of 1874, road-making formed the principal work provided by the State as a means of relief for the labouring and cultivating The Northern Bengal State Railway, now in course of construction, will also run through the west of the District from north to south, with a branch line running from west to east to Rangpur town. By this means, any needful quantity of grain can be thrown into the District in time of need. The great safeguard. however, of Rangpur against famine lies in its climate, which is peculiarly favourable to rice cultivation. Rain which would be considered excessive in other Districts causes no harm here, and longcontinued droughts are almost unknown.

As a preventive against famine, the Collector states that the first object which should be kept in view is the increase of the area from which the food supply of the District is obtained in ordinary years; and to provide for its rapid extension in case of emergency, by means of improved roads and communications, as explained above. The second object should be to decrease the number of useless mouths, by transporting surplus labour to Districts where it can be remune-

ratively employed; and to diminish the proportion of those incapacitated from labour by disease, by improving the sanitary condition of the District in ordinary years before the famine comes. The Collector also suggests that the indigent should be collected into centres of industry, and that the energies of the husbandmen should be directed to the cultivation of the most remunerative crops which the land is able to produce,—in fact, to raise their standard of living, so as to leave a margin for them to fall back upon in times of adversity. The last suggestion offered by the Collector, although he considers it not by any means the least in importance, is the establishment of 'Anná Savings Banks' at each post office, and he refers to the success of the 'Penny Savings Banks' in the agricultural districts of Scotland as an illustration. The Collector remarks, that as the poor of Bengal carry their money about with them, the temptation to spend it would be greatly diminished were they possessed of the means of safely depositing their surplus earnings. The measures suggested would, however, require to have been years in force previous to any emergency like a scarcity. As the main obstacle to taking proper measures in the case of actually impending famine is the difficulty of obtaining correct information in Districts where the cultivators are in communication with the superior landholders only, and Government officials have hardly any opportunity of becoming acquainted with their wants, the Collector suggests that it would be desirable to warn all landholders of their duties towards their tenantry. and to impose heavy penalties in cases of death by famine occurring on their lands, unless they could show that there had been no failure on their part to give timely notice of impending want. It must be borne in mind that in the foregoing paragraphs I merely reproduce the Collector's views without endorsing them. Most of his remedial measures belong to the general improvement of the country in ordinary times, rather than to the direct mitigation of suffering during famine.

FOREIGN AND ABSENTEE PROPRIETORS .- No European landholders are registered as proprietors on the rent-roll of Rangpur: and the Muhammadans, although comprising no less than sixty per cent. of the District population, furnish only a small proportion of the landed proprietary class. In 1871 the Collector furnished me with a return, showing that 555 estates, paying a revenue direct to Government of £107,510, were distributed as follows:—No less than 460 estates, paying a total revenue of £97,578, 16s. od., were held

by 699 Hindus, while only 52 estates, paying a revenue of £3083, 8s. od., were owned by 93 Muhammadans. The remaining 43 estates, paying a revenue of £6947, 16s. od., were held jointly by 256 Hindus with 150 Musalmáns. In 1873 the number of Muhammadan proprietors amounted to 346. A considerable portion of the District is held by absentee proprietors. Pátiládahá parganá belongs to the wealthy Tagore family of Calcutta; and Baharband, Gaybárí, and part of Bhitárband are in the possession of Rání Swarnamayi of Murshidábád. The zamíndár of Balihár in Rájsháhí District also owns a part of parganá Bhitárband. Chaklá Purubbhág belongs to the Mahárájá of Kuch Behar, who likewise holds the large parganás of Bodá and Baikunthpur, which in 1869 were separated from Rangpur and annexed to the adjacent northern District of Jalpáigurí. Bátásun parganá has passed into the hands of patnidárs who reside at Murshidábád.

ROADS AND MEANS OF COMMUNICATION.—The local roads, with the exception of those which are contained within the municipal limits of the town and station of Rangpur, are under the management of the Collector, who administers the amalgamated District Road Fund. A yearly assignment is made by Government for the maintenance of the roads from the General Road Fund of the whole of the Lower Provinces. Under the Collector is a road overseer, who supervises the repairs of the roads, and holds besides the post of town overseer, and in that capacity has charge of the town roads also. The expenses of the town roads are defrayed out of the municipal funds. There are no imperial lines of road in Rangpur District under the management of the Public Works Department.

The Annual Report of the Commissioner of the Rájsháhí Division for the year 1871-72 gives the following return of the roads of Rangpur District, their length, the amount allotted for their maintenance and repair in 1871-72, together with the amount actually expended on them in that year:—(1) Rangpur to Koláhátí (the Dinájpur road), 20 miles in length; allotment for maintenance and repairs, £140; amount actually expended, £109, 5s. od. (2) Rangpur to Padáhárá (the Bográ road), 30 miles; allotment for maintenance and repairs, £100; amount actually expended, £116, 19s. 6d. (3) Rangpur to Bhawáníganj (Kálíganj), 45 miles; allotment for maintenance and repairs, £929, 18s. od.; amount actually expended, £793, 1s. 9d. (4) Rangpur to Bagwá, 30 miles; allotment for maintenance and repairs, £197, 6s. od.; amount actually expended, £107, 16s. 7d.

(5) Rangpur to Mughulhát (the Kuch Behar road), 28 miles; allotment for maintenance and repairs, £100; amount actually expended, £172, 5a. 3d. (6) Rangpur to Chilákhál, 13 miles; allotment for maintenance and repairs, £30; amount actually expended, £16, 6a. 8d. (7) Rangpur to Rangápání (the Jalpáigurí road), 54 miles; allotment for maintenance and repairs, £240; amount actually expended, £231, 8s. 10d. (8) Roads within the limits of the town and station of Rangpur, and maintained out of municipal funds, 20 miles; allotment for maintenance and repairs, £25; amount actually expended, £3, 16s. 3d. Total length of District roads, 240 miles; total allotment for maintenance and repairs, £1762, 4s. od.; total amount actually expended, £1550, 19s. 10d.

With regard to the condition of the roads, I quote the following from the Annual Report of the Commissioner of the Division for 1871-72:-- With respect to the allotments made for roads and bridges, the Collector states that they have been hitherto so small. that the roads fell into a state of utter disrepair, and no repairs of large bridges could be undertaken. As, however, the local collections from roads and ferries will henceforth be all allotted to the District, and spent on the roads and communications, great improvements ought to be made in future years. The chief road in the District is the one from Rangpur to Káligani, a distance of 45 miles. A special grant of £929, 18s. od. was made for this road during the year, as Kálíganj (Bhawáníganj) is now the place where the Assam steamers stop, and all Government and private stores conveyed by the steamers are brought to Rangpur by this road. The road was thoroughly repayed during the year. The bridges in Rangpur are mostly wooden ones,—the brick bridges being very few, as the Collector states that the late low state of the funds did not allow of such being built. The only large bridge which is being reconstructed this year is the Kisoriganj one, on the Jalpáiguri road. The number of new bridges built and of old ones repaired during the year is as follows:—(1) Dinájpur road; 1 new bridge built, and 11 old ones repaired. (2) Bográ road; 5 new bridges built, and 14 old ones repaired. (3) Kálígani road; 5 new bridges built, and 12 old ones repaired. (4) Bagwá road: 1 new bridge built, and 20 old ones repaired. (5) Kuch Behar road; 4 new bridges built, and 3 old ones repaired. (6) Chilákhál road; 1 new bridge built, and 6 old ones repaired. (7) Jalpáigurí road; 2 new bridges built, and 27

old ones repaired. Total, 19 new bridges built, and 93 old ones repaired. With respect to ferries, the Collector states that there are 118 ferries in the District, which were assessed during the year (1871-72) in the sum of £2257; adding to which the balance of previous years, namely, £106, 178. od., the total amount for collection was £2367, 178. od., of which £2193, 188. od. was collected during the year. A sufficient number of boats and boatmen are stated to be employed at the different gháts (landing-places).'

The Northern Bengal State Railway, now (1875) in course of construction, will pass through the western portion of Rangpur District, running north and south, with a short branch line from west to east to Rangpur town. No canals or artificial water-courses exist in the District. Besides the roads, the only other means of communication at present available are the rivers. No important seats of commerce or large trading villages have lately sprung up upon the routes of traffic; the marts which are now the principal seats of trade appear to have been so for as far back as the records of the District extend. Kálíganj, a river-side village on the Brahmaputra, is the only place which appears to have recently risen into importance. It has been found more suitable as a port of call for the Assam steamers than Bagwá, the former station. Kálíganj is simply used for transhipping goods, and its local trade does not seem to have extended.

MANUFACTURES.—Rangpur being almost a purely agricultural District, only a very small proportion of the people live by manufactures. The making of satránjis (a thick striped cotton carpet) affords employment to a number of persons, principally in the vicinity of the headquarters town and in the village of Nisbetganj. The weavers are all Muhammadans. The carpets, when manufactured, are purchased by Márwárí traders, who take them to Dacca and other places for sale. The Musalman peasantry also manufacture for their own use a description of coarse silk cloth (endi), woven from the cocoon of a worm which feeds on the leaves of the castoroil plant. This shrub is to be seen around nearly every cultivator's house, providing the inmates with oil for their amps, as well as supplying food for the worms. In the southern parts of the District, silk culture is carried on to a certain extent, but the cocoons are chiefly exported in a raw state to Bográ and Rájsháhí, where the silk is wound off. The Collector estimates that in a fair year some four hundred maunds (say 296 hundredweights) of cocoor

and about seventy maunds (say 51 hundredweights) of raw silk are thus exported from Rangpur. Basket and mat making is extensively carried on. The ordinary mats are used for walling the houses. A hundred mats, each about a yard square, sell for about Rs. 6 or 12s. Besides the quantity needed for local use, large quantities of these mats are exported to neighbouring Districts. In the north and eastern parts of the District, fine mats of kush grass are made for export. At Chilmari, the kánsáris (braziers) manufacture good brass utensils, bell-metal plates and cups for cooking or eating from. At Barábári, in parganá Pangá, a few families subsist by carving ivory and buffalo horn. They prepare fine ivory combs, chessmen, boxes, toys, etc. The manufacture is greatly on the decrease, owing, it is said, to a falling off in the supply, and consequent dearness, of ivory tusks. At Nisbetganj and Jafarganj a considerable number of persons are employed in making cart-wheels and other rough carpentry work. Boat-building is also carried on on the banks of the Tistá and Dharlá.

The most important manufacture at present carried on in Rangpur District is paper-making, in which industry about 130 manufactories were engaged in 1872. The paper made is of a coarse kind, and is used by natives for book-keeping, and in the District courts for writing notices, etc. The manufactories are situated in the village of Bhágní in parganá Pairáband; in Paniálághát, parganá Muntháná; in Durgápur and Balákandí, parganá Baharband; and in Kursá, parganá Udásí. The largest of these manufactories is not able to produce more than one ream of paper per diem. About one-half of the paper prepared is used locally, the remainder being exported to Bográ and Jalpáigurí. Jute fibre forms the material of which it is made, instead of hemp, as in other Districts. The process of manufacture is thus described: Twenty sers (40 lbs.) of jute are mixed with ten sers (20 lbs.) of lime, and steeped in a masonry vat for one day under water. A vat is usually three cubits long, two and a half cubits broad, and two cubits deep. On the second day the jute is taken out, twisted to squeeze out the water, and kept in the shade for four days. On the sixth day it is exposed to the sun; and on the seventh it is again mixed with two sers (4 lbs.) of lime, and kept in the vat under water for four or five days more; after which it is again dried, cut into pieces about six inches long, and well cleaned. When the jute becomes decomposed, it is pounded continually for three days in a mortar (dhenki). Six persons work VOL. VII.

at the dhenki pestle, which is raised by means of a lever worked by the foot; and two others are employed to turn the stuff in the mortar. When the stuff has been well pounded, it is carried near a sheet of water, laid on a bamboo mat with a layer of grass under it. and then trodden upon for a day by two persons, whilst a third pours water on the mass. The mat is laid over grass in order to prevent the stuff from being soiled with mud. This process is known by the name of kuchbá. When it is over, the stuff is deposited in a second masonry vat filled with water, and beaten with a stick for A little oil is poured on the water, to enable the pounded one day. substance to settle down at the bottom of the vat. The stuff is then gently stirred with a stick until a thin layer rises to the surface. This layer is taken out by means of an instrument called a chanch, and deposited on the ground. The chánch is made of split pieces of bamboo, tied together so as to form a sieve. When the successive layers taken out from the vat have accumulated so as to form ten or twelve quires of paper, they are pressed for the purpose of squeezing out the water, after which they are suspended sheet by sheet on a tatti or bamboo mat to be dried. When the sheets become sufficiently dry, they are taken down from the tattis. brushed on both sides with a glaze made from rice, and exposed in The quantity of materials above given is sufficient to produce four reams of coarse paper, each ream weighing five sers The value of the paper is not stated, but the cost of manufacturing four reams is returned at Rs. 7. 5. 0 or 14s. 71d.

CONDITION OF THE MANUFACTURING CLASSES.—No well-marked distinction has taken place in Rangpur District between capital Manufactures are principally carried on by the people and labour. on their own account and in their own homes. Some of the more fortunate, however, have been led by their success to extend their operations, and either give out work to be done by others at their homes, or employ labourers to join their family and to live and work with them. Such service is generally entered into for a fixed term, and the greater portion of the wages is usually advanced to the labourer on the commencement of his engagement. The Collector states that this practice reduces the labourer to a state of virtual slavery, as the improvident are continually compelled to enter into fresh engagements in order to clear off their old liabilities. Monthly engagements are not uncommon in some trades,—the wages of the artisans varying from Rs. 5 to Rs. 8 (10s. to 16s.) per mensem. These are

the rates commonly paid to country carpenters. The social condition of the manufacturing classes is stated by the Collector to be about the same as that of the general run of the peasantry. It is not an uncommon circumstance for some of the members of an artisan's family to cultivate land, in which he also may be a part sharer. In other cases, an artisan or manufacturer has his own plot of ground, which is cultivated for him by another, who receives a share of the produce in return for his labour. There is no class of labourers in Rangpur District hereditarily attached to a manufacture in a manner which affects their personal freedom.

The following table shows the numbers of skilled workers, mechanics, and artisans in Rangpur, as returned by the Census of 1872, under their respective trades, making a total of 14,930 men:—

MANUFACTURING CLASSES AND ARTISANS OF RANGPUR DISTRICT, 1872.

Indigo manuf					Male dults.		ght (c	orward,		Male adults 7599
Bricklayers (*			•		171	Toy makers, .	•	•	•	34
Brickmakers,					4	Bead makers,				_4
Sawyers,					16	Garland makers	, .			385
Carpenters,					1376	Shell carvers, .				159
Thatchers,					56	Caneworkers,				421
Painter, .					- 1	Cotton weavers,				5475
Blacksmiths.					1083	lute weavers, .				11
Braziers.		-	-		178	Tailors, .				742
Kánsáris.	•	•	-		151	Shoemakers, .				61
Káláigárs,	•	•	:		7	Net makers, .				7
Goldsmiths,	-				1982	Thread makers,				4
Potters, .	•	-	·		2124	Stationers, .				14
Mat makers.	•	•		Ċ	127	Engravers, .				3
Basket make		:	:		320	Bookbinders (da	(tris)	, .		11
Carry forward,					7599		7	otal,	•	14,930

TRADE AND COMMERCE.—The chief articles exported from Rangpur District are rice, tobacco, ginger, jute, turmeric, mustard seed, indigo, silk cocoons, chilies, potatoes, oats, bamboos, raw sugar, clarified butter (ghl), hides, fish, cotton carpets (satránjis), bamboo mats, praying mats of kusá grass, tejpát fruit, etc. The principal articles of import obtained in exchange are cotton, salt, opium, gánjá, liquors, manufactured cotton goods, silk, timber, iron, lead, brass and bell-metal vessels and household utensils, refined sugar, Birmingham ware, cattle, horses, up-country

sheep, etc. The produce of the District available for export is chiefly bought up by brokers, who travel about the country making advances to the cultivators on the crops, and, after the harvest, ship the produce to large grain marts, principally to Dacca and Sirájganj. Large stores and warehouses are situated along the banks of the principal rivers, such as the Brahmaputra, Tista. Dharla, etc., where the goods are stored until they can be conveniently shipped. The tobacco trade is almost entirely in the hands of the Maghs, who ship the produce to Calcutta and Chittagong. Mustard seed and rice are exported to Assam, and to the eastern Districts of Bengal, by way of Sirájganj. Almost the whole of the jute produced in the District also goes to Sirájganj. Silk cocoons are exported to Bográ and to Táherpur, or other parts of Rájsháhí. Dacca takes chilies, potatoes, satránjis, and oats, while Calcutta takes indigo. Of the imports, cotton is chiefly imported from the Gáro hills, through Goálpárá District. A considerable quantity is brought to Sálmárí and other markets on the eastern borders of the District, and thence finds its way into the interior. The foreign and manufactured goods are nearly all imported from Calcutta by country boats or river steamers, but some also come by rail up to Ráimahal, whence they are carried across country. From the northern hills, the imports consist of timber, Bhutiá ponies, and blankets. The Nepalis yearly bring down large quantities of ghi (clarified butter) for sale in the District. The most important of the permanent seats of commerce is Mahiganj. A large number of Márwári merchants reside here, and carry on a thriving trade in every description of produce. Banking operations are also carried on by one or two houses. The table on the next page gives a list of the remaining principal trading villages or produce depôts, showing the principal articles of trade, the thand or police circle in which each is situated and the name of the nearest river.

Two annual trading fairs of considerable importance are held in the District, one at Rangpur town and the other at Darwání, at which cattle and horses form the principal articles of sale. No statistics exist showing the relative value of the exports and imports of the District.

CAPITAL AND INTEREST. — Accumulations of coin are either hoarded or lent out at interest, hardly ever expended in the improvement of estates. In small loan transactions, where ornaments or household utensils are pledged as security for the debt, the

TRADING VILLAGES AND PRODUCE DEPOTS IN RANGPUR.

T	rading Village or Depôt.	Description of Trade carried oa.	Police Circle (thing) within which the Village is situated.	Name of nearest River.	
		Jute, tobacco, and ginger,	Baruni,	Tistá.	
	Gorámára.	Do. do do.	do.	do.	
	Bhotman, ·	Do. do. do.	Pharanbari.	do.	
	Kankina,	Jute and lime.	Nishetgani, .	do.	
4	Chhalapak.	Do. do.	do.	do.	
5	Gaighantá,	Rice, mustard, jute, and			
6	Boragari,	gunny bags.	Dumlá.	do.	
- 1		Jute and tobacco,	l'haranbári.	do.	
7		Do. do.	Nisbetgani,	do.	
8	Akbarbandar,	Rice, paddy, and mustard,		Ghaghát.	
9	Daudpur,	Rice, paudy, and mustard,		_	
10	Betgári,	Rice, tobacco, jute, and	Nisbelgani, .	do.	
		gunny,		i .	
11	Sundarganj,	Rice, paddy, mustard, and	Ulipur	do.	
		Jule,		1	
12	Nisbetganj,	Rice, paddy, satranjis,	Nishetganj.	do.	
	· -	and mats,		Jamuneswari.	
13	Bádarganj, .		Malang.	do.	
14	Sahebganj,		Kumargani,	do.	
15	Táráganj,	Rice, jute, and tobacco,		Dharla.	
16	Kulághát,	Jute, tolacco, and ginger	Nageswarl,	do.	
17	Pánchgáchhí,	ute and mustard.	do.	do.	
π 8	Tatrapur,	Do. do.	Ulipur, .	Mánás.	
10	Belka,	Do. do.		do	
20	Chhanchia Mirganj	Rice, paddy, and jute,	Bhawanigani.	do.	
21	Kámárjaní, .		Phulkumar,		
22	Bhurangamari,	Jute and mustard.	Chilmárí .	Brahmaputre	
23	Chilmari, .	Rice, paddy, and jute,	Bhawanigani	do.	
24				. Sankosh.	
25		Jute, tobacco, and ginger	d Pirgani	do.	
Zó	1 4	Rice, paddy, and mustare	Bágdar,	, do.	
27	Gurjipárá,			do.	
28	Kisorlganj.	Rice, jute, and tobacco,	do	do.	
29	Hazáribandar.	, DO. GO. GO.	Nisbetganj.	. do.	
30		, Do. do	do.	do.	
1 21	Burirhat.	. Tobacco.	Ulipur,	. do.	
1 22	Nek Muhammad,	. Jute,	. 5		

usual rate of interest charged is 6 pie in the rupee per mensem, or at the rate of $37\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. per annum; where personal security alone is given, the usual rate is 9 pie in the rupee per mensem, or 50 per cent. per annum. In large loan transactions, the rate of interest is usually 12 per cent.; the rate, however, varies according to the circumstances of the case and the exigencies of the borrower. The most usual way in which the agriculturists of Rangpur obtain loans is by taking advances on the value of their crops from produce brokers. The amount advanced in money is repayable in kind without any stated rate of interest, but this is covered by the produce to be delivered being valued at a low rate, considerably below the

market price. Thus, an indigo manufacturer would receive indigo at the rate of six bundles to the rupee from cultivators to whom he had made advances, while he might only be able to get three bundles for a rupee from free producers. Again, while jute in 1870 was selling in the market at Rs. 3, Rs. 4, and Rs. 5 a maund (from 8s. 2d. to 13s. 8d. a hundredweight), the agriculturists were selling their produce to the brokers from whom they had received advances at the rate of Rs. 1. 8. 0, Rs. 1. 12. 0, and Rs. 2 per maund (from 4s. 1d. to 5s. 5d. a hundredweight). This system of agricultural advances is chiefly followed in the case of jute, sugar, tobacco, and indigo cultivation. Small money loans and agricultural advances are granted by village merchants or by produce brokers. Large sums, i.e. amounts of upwards of Rs. 100 or £10, are borrowed from the native bankers at Mahíganj.

NATIVE INSTITUTIONS.—Besides the educational and medical institutions, which will be described at length in a subsequent section of this Statistical Account, there are public libraries at Rangpur town and Kánkiná, and also a literary debating club at the latter place. There is but one printing press in the District, which prints only in Bengalí. From this press issues the only newspaper published in the District, the Rangpur Dik Prakás, a weekly journal with a circulation estimated at about 200 copies in 1871.

ESTIMATED INCOME OF THE DISTRICT.—The Collector, in 1871, returned the estimated income of Rangpur District, as calculated for the purposes of the Income Tax Act of 1871,—that is to say, the total of all incomes over £50 a year,—at about £384,000. This appears to have been too low an estimate. It would yield an income tax of £11,950 at the then rate of $3\frac{1}{8}$ per cent.; but the net amount of tax actually realized in 1870-71 was £13,220. In the following year, 1871-72, the rate of the tax was reduced to $1\frac{1}{24}$ per cent., and the minimum of incomes liable to assessment raised to £75. The net amount of income tax realized in that year was £4157, 6s. od.

HISTORY.—The following brief historical sketch is quoted in a condensed form from Mr. Glazier's Report on the District of Rangpur, who expresses his indebtedness to Dr. Buchanan Hamilton for the greater part of the information:— Rangpur was originally included in the kingdom of Kámrúp, the Karátoyá river forming the boundary between Kámrúp and Matsyá or Bengal. The Rájá Bhagadattá, in the war of the Mahábháratá, espoused the side of Dharjyudan, and was slain by Arjun. Besides Rangpur, the

kingdom of Kámrúp included Assam, Manipur, Jayántiyá, Cáchár, and parts of Maimansinh and Sylhet. The name of Rangpurthe place of pleasure, or abode of bliss—is thought to arise from the circumstance that Rájá Bhagadattá possessed a country residence here on the banks of the Ghaghat. There is another Rangour to the west of Gauhati, the chief town of the present District of Kámrúp, which also lays claim to the same distinction. Pargana Pairaband. which lies south and west from the Ghaghat, a few miles only from Rangour town, is called after Pairavatí, a daughter of Bhagadattá. who held it as an estate. According to the authority of the Ain-i-Akbari, Bhagadattá had twenty-three successors in his dynasty; and the Yagini Tantrá gives some very misty accounts of subsequent kings. Among them is Jalpeshwar, who built the temple of Siva at Ialbesh in the Dwars. But putting aside these legends, probably made up according to the fancy of the annalist, we have genuine local traditions of three dynasties that reigned in Rangpur previous to the close of the fifteenth century.

'Of the earliest dynasty, there are traces only of one Prithu Ráiá. The ruins of his city lie half in chaklá Bodá and half in parganá Baikunthpur, in the present District of Jalpaiguri. The city consisted of four enclosures, one within the other, the innermost containing the Rájá's palace. In both the inner and middle cities were subdivisions, separated from each other by ramparts and ditches, dividing each city into several quarters. The outermost city of all was tenanted by the lowest classes of the populace. The place was strongly fortified for the times in which it was built. The defences were lofty earthen ramparts, with wide moats on the outer sides; and advantage was taken of a small river, the Talmá, to form a deep fosse under the embankment, between the middle and outer cities. In some places the earthen defences were faced with brick and surmounted by brick walls. The Raja's house had also a wall round it. The only remains left are portions of the ramparts and heaps of bricks in various places. (Vide Statistical Account of Jalpaiguri.) This Prithu Rájá met a tragical fate. He was attacked by an impure tribe of kichoks or gipsies, and, afraid of having his purity sullied by contact with them, he jumped into a large tank near his palace, whither he was followed by his guards, and the town was given up to plunder. The place is supposed to be still occupied by his spirit; and when Buchanan Hamilton visited it, a flag was hoisted on the ground between the tank and the palace, which was overgrown

with jungle, to indicate that the spot was holy, and the guides bowed down low and called upon the Mahárájá Prithu by name.

'The next dynasty is that of the Páls, of which we have notices of four kings, Dharmá Pál being the first. There seems reason to suppose that he was descended from or connected with the Pál princes who preceded the Vaidya dynasty in Bengal, and reigned in parts of Dinájpur and Bográ. One of this family was reigning in Kámrúp, in Assam, in A.D. 1175. A few miles south of Dimlá are the remains of a fortified city, which still retains the name of Dharmá Pál. It is in the form of an irregular parallelogram, rather less than a mile from north to south, and three-quarters of a mile from east to west in the centre, diminishing towards the north and increasing in breadth towards its southern extremity. It consisted of an inner and an outer city, with raised ramparts of earth and ditches on the outer sides. (Vide Statistical Account of Jalpáigurí.)

'Dharmá Pál's domain must have been extensive, and included the greater part if not the whole of the present District of Rangpur; for in Buchanan Hamilton's time tradition pointed to a house at Oyari, east of Ulipur, near the Brahmaputra, as that of his successor Gopi Chandra, and there are still the remains of the palace of Gopi's son, Bhará Chandra, at Udáipur, in parganá Baghdwar, far to the south. Dharma Pal had a sister in-law, Minavati, the remains of whose fort, consisting of an inner and an outer enclosure, still exist, two miles to the east of Dharmá Pál's city. Her husband was dead, but she fought against her brother-in-law on behalf of her son Gopi Chandra, and defeated his troops in a battle near the Tista, after which Dharma Pal disappeared. Gopi Chandra succeeded to the vacant throne, but he did not govern; Minavatí would not so readily part with her authority. She provided him with a hundred wives, and, when he grew tired of them, persuaded him to dedicate his life to religion. He accordingly accepted a Jogi or religious mendicant as his spiritual instructor, and the two are locally believed to be still wandering about in the forests. A poem called Sibargit, sung by Jogi minstrels, recounting the lamentations of Gopi's numerous wives at his departure, was said to be popular in Kámrúp at the beginning of this century,—an indication that the rule of the Pals included that Province as well as Rangpur.

'Gops's son Bhavá Chandra succeeded him. He is also called Udái Chandra, whence the name of his city, Udáipur. Bábu Bepin

Behári Chardra, a resident of Baghdwar pargand, has recently made some investigations among the ruins of Udáipur, which are situated in almost impenetrable jungle. Nothing of special interest was discovered, the ruins of the palace and other buildings and tanks being the main features. The Bábu, however, collected some curious traditions of Bhavá Chandra, of which the following may be mentioned:—

'Ráiá Bhavá Chandra and his mantri or minister are the heroes of the Hindu nursery version of the wise men of Gotham, and are renowned far and wide throughout Bengal. The Ráiá and his minister were bereft of common sense by the curse of the Ráiá's favourite goddess, whom he offended by visiting her temple at a forbidden time. They did nothing like other people,-slept by day, and kept awake throughout the night. The mantri took up his abode in a box, and only emerged from his retreat when called upon by the Ráiá to deliberate with him on some hard matter. One or two of these judgments may be noted. The Raja and his minister, in the plenitude of their wisdom, sentenced the potters to compensate the merchants for loss by wreck, on the ground that the high mounds raised by the former brought the clouds which had caused the storm. On another occasion, the people brought a fine wild hog to them, that they might decide what strange animal it was; and after deep cogitation on the knotty point, they concluded that it must either be an overgrown rat or an elephant gone into a consumption. But their last judgment gives the climax to their fame. Two travellers were discovered one afternoon digging a cooking-place in the ground by the side of a tank for the preparation of their evening meal. The Rájá, who discovered them, at once concluded that the men were engaged in effecting a burglarious entry in order to steal the tank, and he sentenced them to be impaled as robbers. The poor travellers, driven to desperation, made each of them seemingly frantic endeavours to be impaled on the taller of the two poles; and when the Rájá inquired the reason of their extraordinary rivalry, they informed him that they had learned, by the power of their enchantments, that whoever was impaled on the taller pole would in the next birth become the sovereign of the whole world, while the other would be his minister. Bhavá Chandra, thinking that it would be far from consistent with justice that such low people should acquire supreme dignity, forthwith had himself impaled on the coveted pole, and his faithful

mantri followed his master, and expired on the shorter one. Bhavá Chandra's successor, Pala, was the last of the line. A state of anarchy followed, Kámrúp being overrun by rude tribes, the Koch, Mech, Gáro, Bhot, Lepchá, and others.

'The next dynasty had three Rájás,—Niládwáj, Chakradwáj, and Nílámbhar. The first Rájá founded Kamátápur, the ruins of which are situated in Kuch Behar territory, on the eastern bank of the Dharlá river. The city was very extensive. Buchanan Hamilton found it to be nineteen miles in circumference, five of which were defended by the Dharlá, and the rest by a rampart and ditch. These old cities all present the same features,—enclosure within enclosure, wall within wall, the king's palace occupying the centre of the whole.

The third king of this dynasty, Nílámbhar, attained to great power. His dominions included the greater part of Kámrúp, the whole of Rangpur as far as Gorághát to the south, where he built a fort, and part of Matsyá or Bengal. The struggles of the Afghán kings of Bengal to retain their independence of the Dehli emperors must have afforded the opportunity to this energetic prince to extend his dominions in that direction. He laid out a magnificent road from Kamátápur to Gorághát, much of which is still in good preservation, and forms part of the main road between Kuch Behar, Rangpur, Several isolated forts scattered over the District are called by Nilámbhar's name. The fall of this monarch is attributed to the vengeance of his prime minister, a Brahman named Sochi Patra. He had ordered the son of this man to be killed for some misconduct, and part of his flesh to be cooked, of which he contrived that the father should partake. The Brahman went to the court of the Afghan kings at Gaur, and procured the invasion of Rangour by the Muhammadans, which is their first appearance in this direction. The Muhammadan commander gave out that he despaired of taking the place, and proposed a peace. He asked and obtained permission for Musalmán ladies to go and pay their respects to the Hindu queen: but in the litters armed men were concealed, who captured the town. Nilámbhar was taken prisoner, and put into an iron cage to be carried to Gaur; but he escaped by the way, and has ever since remained concealed. Buchanan Hamilton says that the people of Kámrúp look for his restoration, when the usurpers. Bhutiás, Assamese, Kochs, and Yavanas (western barbarians), shall be driven out of the land.

'The Afghán king who made this conquest is supposed to be Husáin Sháh, who reigned A.D. 1497–1521. There is an account of a disastrous expedition made by him into Assam, which probably slackened the hold of the Muhammadans on the whole of the country they had occupied in Rangpur; for we subsequently find the limit of their possessions northward to be an irregular line drawn from the Karátoyá on the west, crossing the Ghaghát and Tístá midway, extending to the Brahmaputra on the east, and including Pairáband and other parganás which were comprised in sarkár Gorághát. The succeeding Rangpur dynasty, the Koch, built a line of fortifications all along this boundary, many parts of which are still in excellent preservation. The Musalmán possessions to the south of this boundary-line were consolidated in the time of Husáin's successor, Nasrát Sháh, by Ismáil Ghází, the governor of Gorághát.

'Among the wild tribes that had overrun Assam and driven back the Afghán Husáin Sháh, the Koch came to the front, and, uniting under Hájo, founded the Koch or Kuch Behar dynasty, which exists to the present day. Hájo had two daughters,—Hirá, who married a Mech, and had a son, Visu; and Jirá, who also had a son, Sisu. Visu is reckoned as the first of the Kuch Behar Rájás. Sisu is the ancestor of the Baikunthpur family known as the Jalpáigurí Rájás, who obtained Baikunthpur as an appanage of Kuch Behar.

'Visu introduced Brahmans from Silhet, and by their help his Mech father was thrown aside, and a divine origin was manufactured both for himself and his cousin Sisu, and his descendants adopted the title of Náráyan Deo. The Koch also gave up their tribal name, and assumed that of Rajbansi-literally, of the royal kindred. The race speedily became effete, and offered an easy prey to the Mughuls when they had leisure to turn their attention to this quarter. Visu divided his realm among his two sons, giving to Sukládwáj all to the east of the Sankos and both sides of the Brahmaputra, and to Nar Náráyan the western portion, lying between the Sankos and the Mahananda rivers. Division brought weakness in its train; and Parikshit, the grandson of Sukládwáj, became tributary to the Mughul governor at Dacca. twenty-seven years after Bengal had been wrested from the Afgháns by Akbar's generals, the Mughuls conquered and annexed nearly the whole of Parikshit's dominions for arrears of tribute. He was

allowed, however, to retain a small patch of territory as a vassal, and his brother Ballit was confirmed in the governorship of Durrung. The rest of the country was divided by the conquerors into four sarkars, which they retained for over half a century; but in 1662 Mír Jumlá met with deseat in attempting to penetrate farther into Assam, and he had to cede much of the land previously occupied. The Muhammadans retained one sarkár, Bengal-bhúm (comprising Baharband and Bhitárband), and portions of two others, namely, Goálbárí in Dhenkiri, or Uttarkul surkár, and Goálpárá and Rángámátí in Dakhinkul sarkár. A Muhammadan officer was stationed at Rángámátí, whose duty it was to encourage the growth of forests and reeds, in order that the fierce-Assamese might not penetrate farther to the east and south. The reduced realm held by Parikshit's descendants is known in our old records as the State of Bijni, tributary both to the English, as the successor of the Muhammadans, and to the Bhutiás, who about this time began encroachments on the country to the south of their hills. Ballit's descendants still continued to hold Durrung under the Assam Government. With regard to the western division of Visu's dominions, made over to his son Nar Nárávan, a line of fortifications was erected all along its southern borders as a defence against Muhammadan invasion; it consisted of lofty earthen ramparts with wide moats on the outer sides, and was constructed soon after the division of the kingdom, probably in the time of Nar Náráyan or his successor. The eastern extremity of this line of defences was turned, when parganá Baharband and the rest of the dominions of Parikshit were taken possession of by the Muhammadans. Some time preceding the final conquest of Rangpur, the Muhammadans also turned the western extremity, and took possession of parganá Kundí, lying north of Pairáband, between the Ghaghat on the east and Swaruppur on the west.

'Rangpur proper, otherwise Kuchwárá or sarkár Kuch Behar, is that portion of the old Province of Rangpur which was last conquered by the Musalmáns from the Kuch Behar Rájás. It included six chaklás or divisions. The three smaller ones, Bodá, Pátgrám, and Purubbhág, form the zamindárí of the Kuch Behar Rájá; of the other three, Fathípur and Kázírhát are parcelled out among a number of zamindárs, and Kánkiná is still held as an undivided estate. In the Bengal year 1094, or 1687 A.D., in the reign of Aurangzeb, the Mughuls, under the leadership of Ebadat Khán, advanced from Gorághát and occupied the three central chaklás of Fathípur,

Kázírhát, and Kánkiná. These three chaklás appear to have been conquered without much difficulty; they consisted of open country. fairly populous, and offering no natural obstacles. The main current of the Tista did not then divide Kankina from Kazirhat and Fathipur, but ran south-west, separating Bodá from the rest of The three other chaklás, namely, Bodá beyond the Kuchwara. Tista to the north-west, Patgram to the extreme north-east, and Purubbhág beyond the Pangá jungles and across the river Dharlá to the east, offered a desperate resistance. Fauidar (governor) after fauidar was appointed to Rangpur in quick succession. The struggle lasted for twenty-four years, and towards the close became a three-cornered fight. Jag Deo, and Bhog or Phoj Deo, of the Baikunthpur family, invaded Kuch Behar on the death of Raja Mahendrá Náráyan. They laid waste the country where the war was going on, and kept the Muhammadans at bay; but ultimately Shantá Náráyan, a cousin of the new Rájá, Rúp Náráyan, drove out the Baikunthpur family, and concluded a peace with the Muhammadans in 1711 A.D. The chaklás of Bodá, Pátgrám, and Purubbhág were nominally ceded to the Muhammadans, but still continued to be held in farm by Shanta Narayan on behalf of the Kuch Behar Ráiá.

'The fact that, although the Mughuls forced the cession, they never wrested the chaklás out of the hands of the Kuch Behar Rájá, accounts for the irregular nature of the boundary which exists between them and Kuch Behar proper. A long narrow strip of Kuch Behar territory extends from the north of Pátgrám, crossing the present Tístá, and divides Kázírhát from Bodá. This would no doubt have been included in the ceded tract if the boundary had ever been regularly laid down. In Pátgrám the very fields are intermixed, one forming part of the chaklá, and the next belonging to Kuch Behar territory, to the great confusion of the administration.

'In the larger chaklás first occupied, the Mughul conquerors seem to have pursued the same policy of leaving in possession, as chaudharís, the persons who had previously been in charge of the collections under the Kuch Behar dynasty; and so far as is known, no change took place up to the acquisition of the diwáni or financial administration of the country by the East India Company in 1765. Kázírhát was then divided among five, and Fáthípur among four sharers. The Muhammadans appear to have at first called their new conquest Fakír-kundí, from the name of the parganá which

confronted them across the Ghaghat opposite Kundí, which they already held, and where the town of Mahíganj now stands. Here they probably made their first entry.'

Under Mughul administration, the District was always farmed out to revenue contractors; the samindárs never paid their revenue direct to Government. After the assumption of the financial administration of the country by the East India Company, regular engagements were made with the samindárs. The first Settlement made with the British Government was in the year 1172 (1765-66). Some years afterwards, a return was made to the system of farming out the District, but the exactions of the revenue farmer caused an insurrection on the part of the cultivators (described in the first pages of this Account). In 1783 the zamindárs were again invited to enter into direct engagements with the Government. In 1790 a Settlement for ten years was made with the zamindárs; and three years later this Decennial Settlement was declared permanent and unalterable in perpetuity.

Mr. Glazier, in his Report on the District of Rangpur above cited, describes the condition of the zamindárs at the time of the Permanent Settlement, and the effect of that measure on Rangpur District, in the following words:—'In considering the position of the zamindars prior to the Permanent Settlement, it must be borne in mind that the term zamindár is a very wide one, including different classes of owners, the origin of whose rights is very various. Thus in Rangpur we have what, for want of better terms, may be styled the semi-feudatory estates, such as Baikunthpur, and the chaklás of Bodá, Pátgrám, and Purubbhág, held by the Rájá of Kuch Behar; the sub-feudatory estates, or the rest of Kuchwárá, held by descendants of Kuch Behar officers, who had a century before been inducted by the Mughuls into their estates as zamindárs; the new purchasers, such as the Baharband and Swaruppur zamindars, who could pretend to no rights beyond any limitations the Government might have chosen to have entered in their deeds of possession: the large zamindárs, owners of what had been principalities, such as Idrákpur and Dinajpur; and lastly, the smaller zamíndárs, who were generally holders of táluks which had been separated from the larger estates. It was the position of the fourth of these classes, whose principalities had parcelled out Bengal, that determined the question of the position of the samindars in general.

^{&#}x27;The samindars were more than mere contractors for the revenue.

That term rightly defines the position of the farmers, who, under the Muhammadans and under the first Settlements of the English. leased the Districts from Government. The Committee of Revenue, in their order on the Baharband measurement case in 1786, speak of the " samindar's office," and of his being "vested with the superintendence and collection of the revenues of a zamindari." This gives a closer view of the zamindárs' real position: they held an administrative office, which had become hereditary by long custom, and they possessed an estate in that office with certain vague and undefined rights. The superior right of Government as the sole owner of the soil was unequivocally maintained and admitted. During the calamitous year 1194 Bengal era (1787-88 A.D.), the Collector reported, that in order to induce the *zamindárs* to engage for the previous year's revenue without deduction, he had represented to them that a zamindár had a right to his land no longer than he continued a good and useful subject to the State; and that, if they insisted on withholding their services, he should insist on their relinquishing, by a regular deed, all right and title to their camindáris. Again, a petition from the zamindárs relating to the Settlement of 1195 Bengal era (1788-89 A.D.) commences with the following words :- "The country belongs to the Company, and we the zamindars, are only appointed for the purpose of transacting the business of it." The zamindars could not make a fresh measurement or assessment on their ravals without the permission of Mr. Purling, the Collector who commenced the Government. Decennial Settlement, writes in 1790: - "Government in this country is not the participator according to exigency in the produce of the land, but the positive possessor of the whole of the profits of the soil, allowing but a maintenance to those whose duties are devoted to the State."

'On the other hand, the hereditary character of the zamindars, and their preferential right to a settlement "on terms sufficiently moderate to enable them to maintain a degree of respect among their dependents," was recognised by the Directors in 1777. When dispossessed of their zamindáris, owing to the collections being leased to farmers, they were granted a musháhárá, or proprietary allowance of ten per cent. upon the revenue derived from their lands; and they were also declared entitled to hold a moderate amount of land not included among the Settlement assets. Two incidents of a distinctly proprietary character attached to their status. One was

that they could grant sub-tenures or táluks, by gift or sale, out of their zamiudáris. For a long time previous to the English occupation, they had been in the habit of making these grants, and they continued to do so subsequently, in spite of prohibitions. Several such grants. where the revenue had been secured by a proper assessment of the tilluk, were made with the sanction of the Collectors, and are recorded in their proceedings; but the right had been so much abused. that the action of the zamindárs in this respect had seriously curtailed the Government revenue. Secondly, their lands were liable to be sold for arrears of revenue. This itself is a distinct admission of their possession of some saleable rights; and this liability is enunciated in our earliest records. In the instructions for the Settlement of 1777, it is laid down "that for all lands let to the zamindárs as above directed, it be expressly stipulated in their kabuliyats that in case of their falling into arrears they shall be liable to be dispossessed, and their zamindáris or portions of them sold to make good the deficiency." This liability to sale is repeated over and over again. Mr. Goodlad, the Collector in 1789, reports that he had tried every means except corporal punishment to recover the balances from the zamindárs; and he applied to the Board of Revenue for permission to proceed to the sale of their Threats of sale constantly occur, which were not carried into effect, owing to the balances being otherwise recovered; and instances are not wanting of actual sales. In fine, we may conclude that, while the samindárs held these scraps of proprietary right which had naturally developed out of the hereditary character of their office, their position altogether was so very vague and undefined, and the authority of Government as a recent conqueror was so freely allowed, that any conditions of settlement and limitations of their authority whatever, short of absolute deprivation, would not have borne the character of unjustness or harshness. The Permanent Settlement which gave the proprietary right to the samindars—with some uncertain reservations in favour of the rayats, which were never enforced -was a pure gift,-a splendid one to those who had brains and money to make good use of it, but a fatal one to those who had neither.

'It is interesting to observe the very gradual working out of the idea of the Permanent Settlement. In 1776 the Board of Directors write: "Having considered the different circumstances of letting your lands on leases for life or in perpetuity, we do not, for many weighty reasons, think it advisable to adopt either of these modes." But

they approved of a proposition for letting the Province of Dinajpur to the Raja for life, as an experiment, the issue of which would in some measure enable them to judge of the propriety of adopting a general system on similar principles. These instructions were repeated year by year; and in 1783, on receiving information of the fixed leases granted for Baharband and other tracts, they wrote indignantly: "We repeat our orders, that you do not grant fixed leases on any pretence whatever. The expediency of letting the lands for a longer period than one year, or in perpetuity, is a great political question, on which, in the present critical situation of our affairs, we cannot at this time come to any determination." 1788 the Rájá of Kuch Behar applied for a fixed lease for his samindári of Bodá, etc., but the proposal only met with a contemptuous notice from the Board. A change of policy, however, suddenly took place. In the spring of the same year (1788), orders were sent to make a five years' Settlement; and the Bodá samindár, after a second ineffective attempt to get a permanent Settlement, agreed to accept the short term. As it was the year following the famine, none of the other zamindars of the District entered into similar engagements.

'The arrangements for the Decennial Settlement commenced in 1790; and how that Settlement was merged by a word into a permanent one is matter of history. So far as the interests of the Government were concerned, no worse time could have been chosen for bringing the measure into operation in Rangpur. The country required years of rest to recover from the effects of the disasters of 1787; and the samindárs very unwillingly entered into their engagements, with the exception of those of Baharband, Bodá, and Baikunthpur. Two years elapsed before the Settlement was finally arrived at; and instead of the hoped-for increase of Rs. 139,000 on the revenues of 1106 Bengal era (1789-90 A.D.), in order to attain to the standard of 1193 Bengal era (1786-87 A.D.) for Kázírhát and Bodá, and of 1187 Bengal era (1780-81 A.D.) for the rest of the District, the total increase obtained was between Rs. 15,000 and Rs. 20,000. The permanently assessed revenue on Kuchwara was about the same as the demand of 1190 Bengal era (1783-84), the year following the insurrection, the lowest rate at which it had ever stood since the acquisition of the country by the English. Among the Kuchwara estates, Boda and Baikunthpur alone were kept up to the standard.

'A temporary Settlement of say twenty or thirty years would have given sufficient stability of possession for the encouragement of cultivation, and at its close a rich increase would have accrued to the Government revenue; or a life Settlement like that of Dinájpur might have been made. As it was, Rangpur was on the whole very lightly assessed, Baharband especially so. In several instances in which the samindars sold (with the Collector's sanction) taluks for the payment of their balances, purchasers were readily found willing to take them at more than their proportionate share of the Government demand, and withal to pay a premium exceeding two years' revenue as purchase money. The total permanently assessed revenue of Rangpur was sikká rupees 819,621, or £,88,792. This did not include Bodá, the revenue of which amounted to a lákh. or £,10,833, where the settlement had been made by the Commissioner then appointed for Kuch Behar.'

Before proceeding to treat in detail of the administrative statistics of Rangpur under British rule, it may be as well to give the following brief sketch of the origin and subsequent history of the large samindáris, which I quote from Mr. Glazier's valuable report above cited:—

BAHARBAND.—The conquest of Baharband and other tracts by the Muhammadans from the Kámrúp Rájá Parikshit, in the beginning of the seventeenth century, has been already related. Baharband was included within Rangpur in 1772, and has ever since continued to form a portion of the District, with the exception of one year, 1786-87, when, together with Idrákpur, it was formed into the small District of Gorághát. It includes the parganás of Baharband and Goálbárí or Gaibárí, and also a portion of Bhitárband. Baharband. with Bhitarband, had been a part of the Nattor Raja's estate; but the latter did not come into this District from Rájsháhí until after the Permanent Settlement. From an account sent to the Committee of Revenue by Mr. Goodlad when Collector of Gorághát, it appears that Baharband, though nominally entered in the name of the Nattor Rájá, was from time to time held as a jágir by Muhammadans, and that in 1782 one Bishen Charan Nandi obtained a five years' farm of it. His successor, Loknáth Nandí, from whom the present owner, Mahárání Swarnamayi of Murshidábád, is descended, is spoken of as being the samindar, having ousted the old nominal possessors. It does not appear whether any purchase money was paid for the property. Loknáth was the first of the samindárs of this District

who succeeded in obtaining a Permanent Settlement for his estate. It came to pass in this wise. The average collections from the estate during the five years it was farmed by Bishen Charan Nandí were Rs. 95,781. At the expiration of this period, the settlement was offered to Loknáth at the average of the three preceding years' collections; but this he declined, and for two years the estate was managed by a sazáwal, or attaching officer, who only collected Rs. 80,525 the first year, and Rs. 82,639 in the second. Loknáth then came forward and offered to take the estate at the latter rate on a permanent lease; and the offer was accepted by the Governor-General in Council in a letter of October 20, 1779, signed by Hastings, Barwell, Francis, Wheeler, and Coote. The sanad or deed of grant recites Baharband, Bhitárband, and Gaíbárí as included in the grant.

'The Directors in London were very wroth at the granting of such permanent leases, and sent out peremptory orders that they were to be forthwith cancelled, but nothing of the kind was done. Baharband zamindár was the only landed proprietor in Rangpur with a large private fortune, and he began at once that course of scientific administration which has rendered this samindari one of the best managed in the District. During 1189 and 1190 Bengal era (1782-84 A.D.), Loknáth carried out a new measurement and assessment of his estate. This relieved the lesser rayals at the expense of the more powerful ones, who had in various ways obtained possession of the best land at the lowest rates of rent, while the deficiency caused by these unfair practices had been made up by taxes, which fell most heavily on the poorer rayats. The principal men went to Calcutta to complain of the new assessment, and laid the matter before the Committee of Revenue. The following decision of the Committee in the matter is interesting, as illustrating what were then considered as the position and rights of zamindars:-"The Committee, adverting to the nature of a zamindar's office and the deed by which he is vested with the superintendence and collection of the revenues of a zamindúri, are of opinion that he does not derive a right from either of making a hastabud of a zamindári by measurement, or of changing the ancient mode or rate of collecting the revenue, without the previous permission of Government." withstanding this apparently adverse ruling, the samindár in the end made good his point. In 1862-63, the test year of Act x. of 1859 (the Law of Landlord and Tenant), when the three years' limitation began to run out, out of a total of 3133 suits for arrears of rent which took place throughout the whole District, 959 appertained to this estate.

'IDRAKPUR AND DINAJPUR - Idrákpur and Dinájpur, known formerly as the nine dunds and the seven dunds shares of Gorághát, were the remains of the large samindári of that name, which at one time comprised, in its two shares, the greater part of Dinaipur District, a portion of the south of Rangpur, and nearly the whole of the present Districts of Maldah and Bográ. In the time of the emperor Aurangzeb, a century before, it also included Swaruppur and Kundí; but the former parganá afterwards became a portion of the Nattor zamindári, and Kundi became a separate estate divided among several sharers. The city of Goraghat was once the capital of the eastern Mughul Government, with a circle of collection of ninety lákhs of rupees: but the seat of Government was afterwards removed to Dacca in the reign of Jahangir. Gorághát formed the Muhammadan basis of operations whence the Rangpur chaklás were overrun by the Mughuls at the close of the seventeenth century. The site of the city is in Dinajpur District, on the west bank of the Karátoyá, and extensive ruins of the place still exist, buried in thick jungle. The division of the large Gorághát estate into two shares of nine-sixteenths and seven-sixteenths is said to have been brought about by fraud. It is alleged that one of the zamindárs, Rájá Bhágwán, being an idiot, his manager (diwán), who had the same name, took advantage of the coincidence, and managed to obtain a grant of the zamindári from the Dacca Governor. A long contest ensued, which resulted in the division above mentioned,—the diwan retaining possession of the seven-sixteenths share, that of Dinájpur.

'The Dinájpur estate was put under the general charge of the Collector of Rangpur during the two years of Rájá Debi Sinh's farm, 1781-83; and the Collector was directed to reside occasionally at Dinájpur, in order to be a check on the farmer. After the interval of a single year, Dinájpur was again under Rangpur for two years more, 1784-86. In May 1786 a separate Collector was appointed for Dinájpur, and the two Districts have ever since remained distinct.

'Idrákpur, the nine-sixteenths share, was included within Rangpur in 1773, when Mr. Purling was Collector of the District. It was afterwards separated, but in 1781 was again brought into this Collectorate. It has ever since remained a part of Rangpur, with the exception of one year, 1786-87, when it formed a portion of the Gorághát District. The revenue assessed on this zamindári fluctuated between Rs. 185,612 in 1178 Bengal era (1771-72 A.D.), Rs. 130,529 in 1181 Bengal era (1774-75 A.D.), and Rs. 160,196 in the time of Rájá Debi Sinh, at which last amount it continued. After the inundation of 1194 (1787 A.D.), a deduction of Rs. 15,000 was allowed up to 1196 (1789-90 A.D.), but discontinued on the formation of the Decennial Settlement. The Idrákpur estate has now disappeared from the map. Its sixty-nine parxands were sold in lots early in the present century for arrears of revenue; only a few small portions remain to the descendants of the former Rájás, paying not more than an annual revenue of Rs. 2000. The Dinájpur Rájá still retains a considerable although a much reduced estate, paying an annual revenue to Government of a lákh and three-quarters of rupees.

'SWARUPPUR AND RANGAMATI.—Swaruppur formed part of the Nattor zamindari in Rajshahi, and lay as an Alsatia on the road between Rangpur and Dinajpur, a convenient refuge for evildoers. It was sold at Calcutta in 1787 for arrears of revenue, and was then transferred to this District, and has been included within it ever since. The revenue assessed on Swaruppur was sikka rupees 45,000, increasing to sikka rupees 58,680. Rangamati included what now forms the Assam District of Goalpara. It was formed into a separate Collectorate, and transferred from Rangpur anterior to the Decennial Settlement. Included in its collections were the tributes of two small states, Bijni and Bidyagaon, which paid their tribute to the Company in elephants. Out of seventy or eighty captured every year, seven or eight only arrived at Rangpur, and the tribute was afterwards changed into a cash one.'

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—Under this heading, in my Accounts of other Districts of Bengal, I have usually had to caution the reader against accepting the figures as absolutely correct. The returns furnished to me of the revenue and expenditure of Rangpur at different dates are of such a character that I think it better not to give them at all. They yield no information as to the cost of the several departments of the administration at different periods, and very little information regarding the productiveness of the various branches of the revenue. Without a large amount of manipulation, based in some cases on pure guess-work, it is impossible for me to

extract from the figures supplied to me by the local treasury any facts either of administrative or of historical value. Thus, while the details supplied to me for a single year cover twenty folio pages of manuscript, they do not enable me to ascertain the cost of the police, or of the jails, or of education, or of the administration of justice. They are, in fact, merely cash entries of 'disbursements' or 'receipts' to or from individual persons; and, however complete as a list of payments at the treasury, are not capable of being used as a record of the administrative facts of the District. I have therefore been compelled to exclude the balance-sheets thus furnished to me from the list of trustworthy materials for this Account of Rangpur District. By separate investigations and inquiries, I have arrived at the cost of the principal branches of the administration since the last years of the Company's rule. Thus, in the sections devoted respectively to education and jails, I furnish the comparative statistics as far back as 1856. No one can regret more than myself the incompleteness of my information as regards the administrative statistics of the District at different periods since it passed under our rule. But, with the single exception of the land revenue (fortunately a very important exception), I have in Rangpur had to choose between an unsafe attempt to evolve comparative statistics from materials incomplete in themselves and not susceptible of comparison, or to pass over this section of my Account altogether. have thought the latter course the more honest one.

LAND REVENUE.—Sub-infeudation of estates has gone on rapidly under British rule. At the time of the formation of the Decennial Settlement, Rangpur District comprised 75 estates, owned by 76 separate registered proprietors or coparceners, paying a total revenue to Government of Company's rupees 838,664, or £83,866, 8s. od.; average land revenue payable by each proprietor or coparcener, Rs. 11,182, or £1118, 4s. od.; average amount payable by each estate, Rs. 11,035, or £,1103, 10s. od. By 1850-51 the number of estates in the District had increased to 525, owned by 1426 registered proprietors or coparceners, paying a total Government land revenue of Rs. 1,129,425. 8. 0, or £,112,942, 10s. od.; average payment by each individual proprietor or coparcener, Rs. 2151, or £215. 2s. od.; average payment by each estate, Rs. 792, or £79, 4s. od. In 1870-71, although the actual amount of land revenue paid showed a slight decrease, owing to transfers, the number of estates and proprietors continued to show an increase. In that year there were

555 estates, held by 1757 registered proprietors and coparceners, paying a total Government revenue of Rs. 1,075,100, or £107,510; average payment by each proprietor, Rs. 1955. 2.0, or £195, 10s. 3d.; average payment by each estate, Rs. 611. 14. 0, or £61, 38. 9d. In 1873 the number of estates, etc., is thus returned in Mr. Glazier's District Report already cited :- The present number of estates on the rent-roll is 563, made up as follows:-Original number of estates settled, 72; deduct estates transferred to other Districts, 13, leaving 59 old estates remaining; new estates acquired by resumption proceedings, 125; new estates from sales, 152; new estates from partitions, 172; new estates in dried-up river beds, 23; estates transferred to Rangpur from other Districts, 12; total number of estates, 563. The present (1873) revenue-roll amounts to Rs. 974,089, or £,97,408, 18s. od., of which £,97,153 is derived from permanently settled and £255, 18s. od. from temporarily settled estates. The revenue payable by different classes of estates is as follows: -8 estates, with a Government assessment of less than £1 per annum, pay £3, 10s. od.; 184 estates, assessed at between £,1 and £,10, pay £,866, 16s. od.; 215 estates, assessed at between £,10 and £,100, pay £,9377, 8s. od.; and 156 estates, assessed at upwards of £100, pay £87,161, 4s. od. Of the whole 563 estates, 463 are held by 1229 Hindus, paying a Government rental of £87,418, 14s. od.; 54 are held by 160 Muhammadans, paying £3254, 148. od.; 45 are held jointly by 261 Hindus and 186 Muhammadans, paying £6730, 10s. od.; and 1 is a Government estate, assessed at a revenue of £,5.'

OPERATION OF THE RENT LAW.—The number of rent cases instituted under the provisions of Act x. of 1859 (the Rent Law of Bengal), or of subsequent Acts based upon it, is returned by the Collector as follows:—In 1861-62 there were 3887 original suits, besides 1051 miscellaneous applications; in 1862-63, 3133 original suits and 2979 miscellaneous applications; in 1866-67, 3597 original suits and 2534 miscellaneous applications; and in 1868-69, 3247 original suits, and 3813 miscellaneous applications.

PROTECTION TO PERSON AND PROPERTY.—In 1850 there were four magisterial and fifteen civil and revenue courts in Rangpur District; in 1862 there were four magisterial and thirteen civil and revenue courts; in 1862, six magisterial and fourteen civil and revenue courts; and in 1870, five magisterial and fourteen civil and revenue courts. Since 1850 the administration of the District has

been conducted by three covenanted European officers. I have no statistics showing the number of courts or of European officers stationed in the District prior to 1850.

POLICE PROTECTION has been steadily increased. At the time of the Permanent Settlement in 1793, the local police consisted of 38 native officers and 268 footmen; in 1840, of 45 native officers and 312 footmen; and in 1860, of 44 native officers and 322 footmen, besides 5304 village watchmen or chaukldárs. I have no returns of the number of these rural police in the District prior to 1860. The cost of officering the District police, from the rank of jamádár (head constable) upwards, amounted in 1860 to Rs. 16,980 or £1698.

At the present day, Rangpur District is divided into sixteen police circles or thánás, as follows:—(a) In the Head-quarters Subdivision—(1) Máhiganj; (2) Nisbetganj; (3) Darwání; (4) Jaldháká; (5) Dimlá; (6) Phuranbárí; (7) Barábárí; (8) Nágeswarí; (9) Alípur; (10) Kumárganj; (11) Malangá; (12) Pírganj. In the Bhawáníganj Subdivision—(13) Bhawáníganj; (14) Chilmárí; (15) Sadullápur; and (16) Gobindganj. The present police force of Rangpur consists of three distinct bodies, namely, the regular or District police; a municipal police for the protection of the towns; and a village watch or rural constabulary. The total strength and cost of maintenance of each of these bodies is as follows:—

THE REGULAR POLICE consisted of the following strength at the end of 1872:—I superior European officer, maintained at a salary of Rs. 500 a month, or £600 a year; 6 subordinate officers on a salary of upwards of Rs. 100 a month, or £120 a year, and 58 lower-class officers, maintained on less than Rs. 100 a month, or £,120 a year, maintained at a total cost of Rs. 2715 a month, or £,3258 a year, or an average pay of Rs. 42. 6. 9 a month, or £,50. 18s. 1d. a year, for each subordinate officer; together with 350 foot police constables, maintained at a total cost of Rs. 2259 a month, or £2710, 16s. od. a year, or an average pay of Rs. 6. 7. 3 a month, or \pounds 7, 14s. 10d. a year, for each constable. The other expenses connected with the District police are—a sum of Rs. 150 a month, or £180 a year, as travelling expenses for the District Superintendent: Rs. 166. 10. 8 a month, or £200 a year, for pay and travelling allowances of his office establishment; and Rs. 685, 14, 8 a month. or £823, 2s. od. a year, for contingencies and all other expenses. bringing up the total cost of the regular police in Rangpur District in 1872 to Rs. 6476. 9. 4 a month, or £,7771, 18s. 10d. a year, and the total strength to 415 men of all ranks. The area of the District, as taken for the purposes of the Census of 1872, is 3476 square miles, with a total population of 2,149,972. According to these figures, the total strength of the regular police is equal to one man to every 8.37 square miles of the District area, or one man to every 5180 of the District population. The cost of maintaining this force in 1872 was equal to Rs. 22. 5. 9 or £2, 4s. 8d. per square mile of area, or 6½ pie or 2d. per head of the population.

THE MUNICIPAL POLICE is a small body, consisting in 1872 of 3 officers and 56 men, maintained at a total cost of Rs. 356 a month, or £427, 4s. od. a year. The Census Report of 1872 returns only one town as containing a population of upwards of five thousand souls, namely Rangpur, with a population of 14,845, or an average of one policeman to every 251 of the town population. The cost of the municipal police as compared with the population protected, amounted in 1872 to 4½ annds or 6½d, per head of the population.

The Rural Police or Village Watch consisted in 1872 of 5268, maintained by the villagers at an estimated total cost of Rs. 85,757 or £8575, 14s. od., equal to Rs. 24. 10. 8 or £2, 9s. 4d. per square mile of area, or to 7 pics or nearly one penny per head of the population; the strength of the force is equal to one man to every '66 of a square mile of area, or one man to every 408 of the population. Each village watchman has on an average the charge of 48 houses, and receives an average pay in money or lands of Rs. 1. 5. 8 a month, or £1, 12s. 6d. a year.

Including, therefore, the regular District police, the municipal or town police, and the rural constabulary, the machinery for protecting person and property in Rangpur District consisted, at the end of 1872, of a total force of 5742 officers and men, equal to an average of one man to every 60 of a square mile as compared with the area, or one man to every 374 souls as compared with the population. The estimated aggregate cost, both Government and private, of maintaining this force amounted in 1872 to Rs. 13,979 a month, or a total for the year of £16,774, 128. od., equal to a charge of Rs. 48. 4. 0 or £4, 168. 6d. per square mile of area, or $1\frac{1}{4}$ dnnás or $1\frac{7}{4}$ d. per head of the population.

WORKING OF THE POLICE.—During the year 1872, 1928 'cognisable' cases were reported to the police, of which 915 were discovered to be false, and 330 not inquired into under section 117 of the Criminal Procedure Code. Convictions were obtained in 355

cases, or 51.97 per cent of the 'true' cases, the proportion of 'true' cases being one to every 3148 of the population, and the proportion of cases convicted, one to every 6056 of the population; proportion of persons convicted of 'cognisable' offences, one to every 3213 of the population. Of 'non-cognisable' cases, 1777 were instituted during the year, in which process issued against 1308 persons, of whom 773, or 59.09 per cent., were convicted, the proportion of persons convicted of 'non-cognisable' offences being one to every 2181 of the population.

The following details of the cases and convictions for different crimes and offences in 1872 are taken from the report of the Inspector-General of Police for that year. The 'cognisable' cases were as follow: - Class I. Offences against the State, public tranquillity, and justice - Offences relating to coin, stamps, and Government notes, 1 case, no conviction, 2 persons tried; harbouring an offender, 1 case, no conviction, 1 person tried; offences against public justice, 8 cases and 5 convictions, 10 persons tried and 5 convicted; rioting or unlawful assembly, 158 cases and 16 convictions, 116 persons tried and 79 convicted; personating a public servant or soldier, 2 cases and 1 conviction, 1 person tried and convicted. Class II. Serious offences against the person-Murders, 6 cases and 4 convictions, 19 persons tried and 9 convicted; culpable homicide, 20 cases and 4 convictions, 31 persons tried and 7 convicted; rape, 23 cases and no conviction, 3 persons tried; unnatural offences, 1 case, 3 persons tried but none convicted; exposure of infants or concealment of birth, r case, 4 persons tried but none convicted; attempt at or abetment of suicide, 4 cases and 1 conviction, 4 persons tried and I convicted; causing grievous hurt for the purpose of extorting property or confession, I case and I conviction, 6 persons tried and 5 convicted; grievous hurt, 50 cases and 9 convictions, 43 persons tried and 23 convicted; causing hurt by dangerous weapons, 13 cases and 6 convictions, 11 persons tried and 9 convicted; kidnapping or abduction, 19 cases and 2 convictions, 18 persons tried and 8 convicted; wrongful confinement and secret restraint. 7 cases and 1 conviction, 3 persons tried and 2 convicted; selling, letting, or unlawfully obtaining a woman for prostitution, I case and I person tried, but no conviction; criminal force to public servant or woman, 16 cases and 5 convictions, 34 persons tried and 20 convicted; rash or negligent act causing death or grievous hurt, r

case and 1 conviction, 3 persons tried and all convicted. Class III. Serious offences against person and property-Dakdid or gang robbery, 21 cases and 4 convictions, 34 persons tried and 24 convicted; robbery in a dwelling-house, 1 case, no conviction; other robberies, 12 cases and 1 conviction, 5 persons tried and 3 convicted; serious mischief and cognate offences, 31 cases and 1 conviction, 21 persons tried and 1 convicted; lurking housetrespass or housebreaking with intent to commit an offence, or after having made preparation for hurt, 126 cases and 19 convictions, 37 persons tried and 24 convicted; house-trespass with a view to commit an offence, or having made preparation for hurt, 2 cases, 11 persons tried but none convicted; habitually receiving stolen property, I case and I conviction, 10 persons tried and 4 convicted. Class IV. Minor offences against the person-Wrongful restraint or confinement, 135 cases and 24 convictions, 137 persons tried and 55 convicted. Class V. Minor offences against property--- Lurking house - trespass or housebreaking, 7 cases and 3 convictions, 7 persons tried and 4 convicted; cattle theft, 37 cases and 24 convictions, 52 persons tried and 32 convicted; ordinary theft, 922 cases and 118 convictions, 278 persons tried and 174 convicted; criminal breach of trust, 46 cases and 3 convictions, 22 persons tried and 3 convicted; receiving stolen property, 51 cases and 51 convictions, 109 persons tried and 96 convicted; criminal or housetrespass, 170 cases and 27 convictions, 133 persons tried and 51 Class VI. Other offences not specified above-Vagrancy and bad character, 8 cases and 8 convictions, 10 persons tried and 8 convicted; offences under the excise law, 20 cases and 12 convictions, 19 persons tried and 14 convicted; public and local nuisances, 5 cases and 3 convictions, 4 persons tried and 3 convicted. Total, 1928 cases and 355 convictions; percentage of cases convicted to total 'cognisable' cases, 18:41 per cent.: 1203 persons tried and 669 finally convicted; percentage of persons convicted to persons tried, 55.61 per cent.

The number of cases instituted and of persons tried and convicted in 'non-cognisable' cases during 1872 is returned as follows:—Class I. Offences against the State, public tranquillity, and justice, 138 cases, 217 persons tried and 176 convicted; offences by public servants, 30 cases, 34 persons tried and 17 convicted; false evidence, false complaints, and claims, 37 cases, 35 persons tried and 8 convicted; offences relating to weighing and measuring, 1 case, 2 per-

sons tried and I convicted; rioting, unlawful assembly, affray, etc., 12 cases, 18 persons tried and all convicted. Class II. Serious offences against the person—Causing miscarriage, 4 cases, 1 person tried, no conviction. Class III. Serious offences against property-Extortion, 52 cases, 41 persons tried and 13 convicted. Class IV. Minor offences against the person-Hurt, 71 cases, 67 persons tried and 21 convicted; criminal force, 948 cases, 583 persons tried and 356 convicted. Class V. Minor offences against property-Cheating, 25 cases, 23 persons tried and 17 convicted; criminal misappropriation of property, 3 cases, 2 persons tried but none convicted; simple mischief, 98 cases, 83 persons tried and 31 convicted. Class VI. Other offences not specified above-Offences relating to marriage, 234 cases, 50 persons tried and 7 convicted; offences against religion, 1 case, 5 persons tried and 4 convicted; defamation, 14 cases, 18 persons tried and 12 convicted; intimidation and insult, 5 cases, 14 persons tried and all convicted; public and local nuisances, 1 case, 1 person tried but no conviction; offences under chapters xviii., xx., xxi., and xxii. of the Criminal Procedure Code, 44 cases, 61 persons tried and 48 convicted; offences under the Police Act, 16 cases, 15 persons tried and 12 convicted; offences under the Arms and Ammunition Act, 3 cases, 4 persons. tried and 1 convicted; offences under the Census Act, 3 cases, 3 persons tried and 1 convicted; offences under the Pound Act, 37 cases. 19 persons tried and 15 convicted. Total, 1777 cases, 1297 persons tried and 773 convicted; proportion of persons convicted to persons tried, 59.60 per cent.

Excluding 915 'false cases,' and 330 others which were not inquired into, the total number of 'cognisable' and 'non-cognisable' cases investigated in Rangpur District in 1872 was 2560, in which 2500 persons were tried and 1442 convicted, or one person convicted of an offence to every 1490 of the District population; proportion of persons convicted to persons tried in both classes of offences, 57:69 per cent.

JAIL STATISTICS.—There are two prisons in Rangpur District, namely, the principal jail at the Civil Station of Rangpur, and a lock-up at the Subdivisional town of Bhawáníganj. The following are the statistics of the jail population of Rangpur for the years 1857-58, 1860-61, and 1870. As explained in my Accounts for other Districts, owing to defects in the form in which the returns were prepared, the figures for the two former years must be received

with caution, and looked upon as only approximating to correctness. Since 1870, however, an improved form of preparing the return has been introduced, and the figures for that year and for 1872 may be accepted as correct.

In 1857-58, the first year for which materials are available, the daily average number of prisoners in the Rangpur jail was 413; the total number of civil, criminal, and under-trial prisoners admitted during the year being 976. The discharges were as follow: -Transferred, 67; released, 775; escaped, 6; died, 65; executed, 4: total, 917. In 1860-61 the prison returns show a daily average number of 316 prisoners, the total admissions during the year being The discharges were - transferred, 191; released, 621; escaped, 1; died, 39; executed, 1: total, 853. In 1870 the daily average jail population was 303, the total number of prisoners admitted during the year being 884. The discharges were-transferred, 113; released, 1043; escaped, 3; died, 35; executed, 1: total, 1195. Rangpur has always been considered an unhealthy jail, but its sanitary condition has materially increased of late years. In 1857-58 the proportion of prisoners admitted to the jail hospital amounted to 130.02 per cent., and the deaths to 65, or 15.73 per cent. of the average prison population; in 1860-61 the admissions to hospital amounted to 181 64 per cent., and the deaths to 39, or 12'34 per cent. of the average jail population; in 1870 the admissions to the jail hospital amounted to 137.29 per cent., and the deaths to 35, or 11'55 per cent. of the average jail population. In 1872, out of an average prison population of 256, the number of deaths was only 9, or 3.59 per cent., being nearly two per cent. less than the average prison death-rate throughout Bengal.

The average cost of maintenance per prisoner in Rangpur jail, including rations, establishment, hospital charges, clothing, contingencies, and all other charges except the prison police guard, is returned as follows:—In 1854-55 it amounted to Rs. 39. 12. 4, or £3, 19s. 6d. per head; in 1857-58, to Rs. 40. 15. 0, or £4, 1s. 1od.; in 1860-61, to Rs. 41. 0. 7, or £4, 2s. 1d.; and in 1870-71, to Rs. 43. 4. 8 or £4, 6s. 7d. per head. The cost of the jail police guard in 1870 amounted to an average of Rs. 10 or £1 per head, making a gross average charge to Government for that year of Rs. 53. 4. 8 or £5, 6s. 7d. per prisoner. The Inspector General of Jails, in his report for 1870, returns the total co. in that year of the Rangpur jail and Bhawáníganj lock-up

(including prison police guard, but excluding cost of alterations and repairs) at Rs. 14,466, 1. 2, or £1446, 128. 2d. Excluding the cost of the jail police guard, which is included in the general police budget of the District, the cost of the Rangpur jail in 1870 amounted to Rs. 11,725. 6. 3, or £1172, 108. 9d.

Jail manufactures and industries have been carried on in Rangpur for over thirty years, and the work thus performed by the hardlabour prisoners now materially contributes to the maintenance of the jail. In 1854-55 the receipts arising from the sale of prison manufactures, together with the value of stock remaining on hand at the close of the year, amounted to £219, 18s. od., and the charges to £120, 8s. 5d., showing an excess of receipts over charges, or profit, of £,99, 9s. 7d.; the average earning of each prisoner employed in manufactures amounted to Rs. 4. 8. 4, or 9s. old. In 1857-58 the total receipts amounted to £191, 15s. 6d., and the charges to £119, 198. 9d., leaving a profit of £71, 15s. od.; average earning of each prisoner employed on manufactures, Rs. 6. 2. 2, or 12s. 31d. In 1860-61 the receipts amounted to £268, 15s. 7d., and the charges to £202, 5s. 2d., leaving a surplus or profit of £66, 10s. 5d.; average earning of each prisoner engaged on manufactures, Rs. 4. 9. 11, or 9s. 3d. In 1870 the total credits arising from jail manufactures amounted to £982, 6s. 1d., and the total debits to £670, 13s. 2d., leaving a surplus or profit of £311, 12s. 11d.; average earning of each prisoner employed on manufactures, Rs. 43. 14. 3, or £4, 7s. 9d. Deducting the profits derived from prison labour from the total cost of the jail, the net cost to Government of the Rangpur jail and lock-up in 1870 amounted to £,860, 17s. 10d.

In 1872 the statistics of the jail and lock-up were as follow:—The daily average number of civil prisoners in jail was 1.54; undertrial prisoners, 25.24; labouring convicts, 213.79; non-labouring convicts, 15.93: total, 256.50, of whom only 1.18 were females. These figures give one prisoner always in jail to every 8382 of the District population. The deaths in 1872 amounted to 9, or 3.59 per cent. of the average prison population. The total cost of the jail and lock-up in 1872, excluding public works, manufacture department, and prison guard, amounted to £1256, 198. od., or an average of Rs. 49 or £4, 188. od. per head of the jail population. The financial results of prison industries during the year were as follow:—The total credits amounted to £1232, 148. 9d., and the

total debits to £933, 8s. 8d., leaving an excess of credits over debits of £299, 6s. 1d. The amount of cash remitted to the treasury, however, was only £700, 1s. od., while the actual money cost of the manufacture department amounted to £722, 15s. 7d. Out of the 213.79 labouring prisoners, 92.55 were employed in manufactures, the remainder being engaged in prison duties, or were in hospital, or were weak and old and unable to labour. The prisoners actually employed in remunerative labour were distributed as follows:—Gunny weaving, 75; gardening, 13.40; cloth weaving, 4.53; brickmaking, etc., 7.19; bamboo, rattan, and reed work, 15.20; oil pressing, etc., 11.93; string and twine making, 23.48; flour grinding, 3.40; carpentry, 8.90; iron works, 82; yarn and thread spinning, 68; miscellaneous, 2.27; total, 92.55.

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS.—The table on the two following pages illustrates the progress of education in Rangpur District for the fifteen years from 1856-57 to 1870-71. The figures must be received with caution, and are only approximately correct. I have taken every care in preparing the table, but in the Appendices to the Annual Reports of the Department of Public Instruction from which it has been compiled, it happens that the names of some schools are given without any details of expenditure or receipts, and of others without details of the pupils, the average monthly attendance being only given as a total. Subject to this explanation, the following table shows that the total number of Government and aided schools in the District has increased from 21, with a total of 971 pupils, in 1856-57, to 230, with a total of 5361 pupils, in 1870-71. greatest increase is in the number of aided vernacular schools, which increased in number from 8 to 203 within the fifteen years from 1856-57 to 1870-71, and the pupils from 259 to 4242 within the same period. Since 1870 the number of these schools has been still further augmented under the system of primary instruction inaugurated by Sir George Campbell, late Lieutenant-Governor of This further development will be treated of on a subsequent page. The cost of education to Government has increased from £298, 18s. 9d. in 1856-57, to £2811, 3s. 1d. in 1870-71; while the amount derived from schooling fees, private subscriptions, and other local sources, has risen from £246, 198. 8d. in 1866-67. to £1757, 18s. 1d. in 1870-71. The total expenditure on Government and aided schools, therefore, has increased from £587, 4s. 8d. Sentence continued on page 338.

RETURN OF GOVERNMENT AND AIDED SCHOOLS IN RANGPUR DISTRICT, FOR THE YEARS

1856-57, 1860-61, AND 1870-71.

	,							N	THERE O	NUMBER OF PUPILS.	4				
CLASSIFICATION OF SCHOOLS.		'N uniber of schools.	i i		Hindus.		Muh	Muhammedene.	ri En		Others.			Total	
	1856-57	19-0981	1870-71	1856-57	18-55-57 1860-61 1890-71 1860-61 1890-71 1850-57 1860-61 1890-71 1850-57 1860-61 1870-71 1850-57 1860-61 1870-71	1970-7	856-57	1900-01	18yo.7	1856-57	19-0981	18pp-71	45-9581	19-0981	18ye-y
Government English Schools, .	H	4	H	%	S.	2 g	엹	<u>چ</u>	8	:	:	:	ঠ	4	ᇶ
Government Vernacular Schools,	•	Ŋ	80	174	137	186	356	93	6ez	:	:	:	6	8	315
Government Training School, .	:	:	н	:	:	86	:	:	33	:	:	:	:	:	2
Aided English Schools,	+	m	õ	171	158	200	22	8	27	:	:	7	8	227	414
Aided Vernacular Schools,	80	-	20	147	.S	1962	112	ä	2181	:	:	ጼ	259	જ	देव
Aided Girls' Schools,	:	i	7	:	:	83	:	:	4	:	:	:	i	:	9
Total,	12	13	330	528	SoS	2681	443	287	2574	:	:	33	3%	8	Sygi

*For one of these schools, no returns are given of the number of pupils or of the receipts and expenditure. In four others, no There is consequently a discrepancy between the detailed return of the number of pupils is given, but simply the total monthly average. column showing the total number of pupils and the columns of details.

RETURN OF GOVERNMENT AND AIDED SCHOOLS IN RANGPUR DISTRICT—continued.

			١	١	ŀ						
		Cost to Government.	TB DE DE	.•		Amount rea	Amount realized by Fees and Private Contributions.	and Private		Expenditure.	
CLASSIFICATION OF SCHOOLS.	1856-57.	1860-61.		1870-71.		1856-57	1860-61.	1860-61. 1870-71.	1836-37.	1860-61.	1890-71.
			- <u> </u> -		÷				,	•	•
	1. 4 1. 4. 1. 1. 4 1. 4 1. 4 1. 4 1. 4. 1.	· ·	7	J	P	y 2 7	£ 5 d.	£ 5 4. £ 5. 4.	p : 7	; ;	
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t Vemacular	153 1 8		2	156 9	9	38 18 4	15 4 5	8 8 9	192 0	192 0 0 121 15 3	214 18 0
=			-	617 12 5	٧.	:	:	25 11 1			663 3 6
Auled English Schools,		ğ	0	356 16	2	133 5	60 0 0 261 0 0 336 16 10 133 5 1 223 6 6	539 15 0	241 18 .8	573 14	965 0
AidedVemacular Schools.			0	7 0 0 1290 0 4	+	68 15 0	7 3 0	789 18	° ° 8	0 M	202
Aided Girls' Schools.	:	:		108 12 0	0	٠	:	§ 0 0	:	:	
Total .	81 808	495	6	1198	3 1	61 gtz	1 263 4 C	. sp8 18 9 495 4 9 2611 3 1 246 19 8 263 4 0 1757 18 1 567 4 8 847 16 5	587 4 B	847 16 5	459 17 9
		-	۱		1						

Sentence continued from page 335.]

in 1856-57, to £4509, 178 9d. in 1870-71. A notiseable feature in the table is the rapid extension of education among the Muhammadans in this District of late years. In 1860-61 only 287 Muhammadan lads are returned as attending the Government and aided schools, while in 1870-71, out of a total of 5361 pupils, 2574 were Musalmáns,—a considerably larger proportion of Muhammadans than in other Districts. For instance, in Rájsháhí District, where the Muhammadans form 77.7 per cent. of the population, the proportion of Musalmáns in the pupils of the Government and aided schools was only 36.8 per cent.; while in Rangpur, where the Muhammadans form 60 per cent. of the population, the proportion of Musalmán lads attending the Government and aided schools is 48 per cent. of the total number of pupils. (Vide table on the two previous pages.)

SCHOOLS IN 1871-72 AND 1872-73.—It must be remembered that the foregoing table only includes the Government and aided schools, but a large number of unaided schools also existed, which were uninspected by the Education Department, and from which no returns were received. Under Sir George Campbell's improved system of primary education, a large number of these indigenous village schools, which had previously received no assistance from the State, were admitted to the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules. In the year 1871-72 the Education Department furnished statistics of 251 Government and aided schools, and of 12 private schools, attended on the 31st March 1872 by 5227 pupils; average attendance throughout the year, 3742. In 1872-73 the number of Government and aided schools was returned at 348, and the unaided schools at 66; total, 414 schools, attended on the 31st March 1873 by 7808 pupils; average attendance throughout the year, 5504. Although the number of schools has been increased more than sixty per cent., and the number of pupils nearly fifty per cent., in a single year, this improvement has been effected without appreciably augmenting the cost of education to the Government. In 1871-72 the contribution of the State for this purpose amounted to £2775. while in the following year it amounted to £3255.

The subjoined table exhibits the number, attendance; cost, etc., of each class of school in Rangpur District in 1871-72 and in 1872-73.

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS OF RANGPUR DISTRICT FOR THE YEARS 1871-72 AND 1872-73.

		_	A B A	# مر =					Exempliture	TUBE		
DESCRIPTION OF SCHOOLS.	Schools.		Pupils on 31st March	84	Arrendance.	. 5	By Covernment.	Taboat.	From other Sources	Source	Total	7
	1871-72 1872-73 1872-73 1875-73	F.	87:78	78-73	EL-elg: 84-14g:	877.73	1871-72.	1879-73	1871-72.	1879-73	1871-76.	: 1878-73
Higher Schools. Government,	-:-		2:0	883	# : #	- 2 % A	7 + 7	A	269 8 4 8 2 3 8	6 1 4 4. 174 17 19	6 6. 4 53: 0 4 848 3 :	499 t. 4. 499 ts 25 25 br>25 ts 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 2
Total,	•	-		8	يّ	ä	st 19s	1 81 784	817 11 6	639 3 8	779 3 6	87 : 9
Malife Schools. Coverament, Andred,	۰8.	-5.	3 6 6	100	252	\$\$:	74.	15 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	15 14 10 13 14 10 13 14 10	133 6 6	199 197 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 1	616 616 616 616 80 0
Total,	8	2	15.80	1676	8	ŝ	9 2 2 26	91 156	1310 7 1	6 11 6081	1 71 efes	1 11 7918
Primary Schoot. Government, Aided,	-95	-38	2 55	3 E.	÷87.	6s 35°3	or 6 206	306.1 	353 18 7		40m 20m	
Total,		X	3350	5713	*53*	4343	935 9 10	1390 3 8	367 0 7	•	2	106. 3 9
Normal School,	-	-	3	3	8	3	573 3 7	351 19 7			574 6 3	
Aufed Arthural School. Cirtl School.	: ^-		32		3:	8.1		6 :: 6	40.0	75 3 9	3. 3.	6 2: 8 :
	•	•	×	=	3	3,		6 :: 6	2	75 3 9	1 Pr 16 1	2 2
Grand Total,	ş	\$	I	1	9 R	š	31 62 <i>544</i> 6	o o stack	** ** **		•	: 1

The following paragraphs are quoted almost *verbatim* from the Inspector's Report (pp. 136-137 of the Annual Report of the Education Department) for 1872-73:—

'HIGHER-CLASS SCHOOLS.-There are three higher schools in this District,—the Government District school, the aided Tusbandar school, and the unaided Ulipur school, which is supported entirely by Mahárání Swarnamayí of Kásimbázár in Murshidábád, who owns large estates in Rangpur. The silá or District school was founded in 1832 by the local samindars, who subscribed £, 2500 for the purpose, the Rájá of Kuch Behar giving a large two-storied house for the school building. In 1862, Government took the school in hand, and the balance of the old subscriptions of the zamindárs, between £1800 and £1900, was invested so as to form a permanent endowment. The Vice-President of the District School Committee says that the school did well when under its European master. It then sunk for a time, but is again rising under its present native head-master. The Government grant to the school was somewhat reduced during 1872-73, and the number of classes was also diminished by one. The District Committee propose to reduce one class more, by amalgamating the last two classes into one, to be taught by a better-paid teacher than at present. The roll number of the school is 160, and the average attendance 114. At the last entrance examination for the Calcutta University, four boys from this school passed, namely, one in the first, two in the second, and one in the third division. Two of the successful candidates obtained second-grade scholarships.

'The aided school at Tusbandar became a high school only in the course of 1872-73. The Government grant to this school is £4 per month, the samindárs' subscriptions being £14,8s.od. per month. This school sent up three candidates at the last entrance examination, but they all failed to pass. Better results may be looked for when the school is older. The Ulipur higher-class school has 44 pupils on its rolls. It is entirely supported by Mahárání Swarnamayí, but has long been under Government supervision.

'MIDDLE SCHOOLS.—Of the fifty-five middle-class schools in this District, nine only teach English. These schools seem to have but small success at the minor scholarship examinations, and to do but indifferently on the whole. This is attributed to the difficulty of obtaining qualified teachers of English on small pay. The middle-class vernacular schools are spoken of more favourably. They do

not, however, send up a sufficient number of candidates to the vernacular scholarship examinations, a fact which the Deputy-Inspector accounts for by stating that "as soon as the boys reach the highest class, they take posts as patwaris or gumáshtás." These posts are very seldom given to or sought after by schoolboys in other Districts. The Vice-President of the District Committee proposes to move some of these schools to the parts of the District which are at present most backward in education. The aided vernacular schools are also doing well. They are generally under Normal School pupils, who are reported to be much respected by the people. The proportion of Muhammadan pupils is also said to be increasing in these schools. Regarding the attendance at middle-class aided schools, the District Committee's Report states: "The attendance does not exceed 60 per cent. This is not as it should be, but is owing to the boys being kept away in large numbers during the sowing season and other emergencies of agricultural life, and also on the occasions of festivals." It would seem, therefore, that in Rangpur our middle schools succeed in attracting a large percentage of the children of agriculturists. Five unaided vernacular schools of the middle class are under inspection by the Education Department. These are also doing well, especially the Kailás Ranján school at the Civil Station, which was at first a Government school, but is now entirely supported by the samindár of Kánkiná. Two páthsálásone an old "5-rupee pathsala," and the other the model pathsala attached to the District training school—are also reckoned as middle schools. The 5-rupee páthsálá passed one boy, and the model páthsálá three boys, at the last vernacular scholarship examination.

'PRIMARY SCHOOLS.—There are 178 old 5-rupee pathsalds in the District, regarding which the Vice-President of the District School Committee reports as follows:—"The teachers are trained men from the Rangpur Training School, and are, as a rule, well up to their work. I have visited some of the schools, and was satisfied with the teaching. The schools; however, are often short-lived; the interest of the villagers wears away, and the teachers go elsewhere. To counteract this tendency, good and constant supervision is needed. . . . The attendance is irregular, as the bulk of the pupils belong to the agricultural population." There are 28 night pathsalds for day-labourers. The teachers are the same as those in the day pathsalds, who get an extra monthly allowance of one rupee (28.) for every ten scholars. The progress of these night schools is

not good. The number of new primary schools opened out under the orders of Sir George Campbell in September 1872 is 81, which on the 31st March 1873 had a roll of 1595 pupils. Almost the whole number of these pupils belong to the lower classes, and the Muhammadan pupils outnumber the Hindus. The teachers appointed are 30 ex-pupils of the Training School, 25 gurumahásays, 17 ex-pupils of normal and vernacular schools, 5 postmasters, and 5 patwáris.

'Indigenous Schools.—There are a great number of indigenous schools in the District. At present (March 1873), 60 have been visited. Of these, 36 are maktabs or Muhammadan schools, where Persian and Arabic are taught; and 24 are called chauparts, six of them taught by Muhammadans and the rest by Hindus. The Vice-President thinks that these schools do not constitute a tenth part of those actually at work in the District.

'NORMAL SCHOOLS.—There is one school in the Civil Station for the training of village teachers. It was opened in 1865, and has sent out 255 pupils. "The majority of those who have passed from this school," says the Vice-President, "are at work as teachers. We have 177 schools taught by them in this District, and there are some more of them in Jalpáigurí and Bográ. Some, however, have betaken themselves to other pursuits. . . . As Government has gone to a considerable expense in training these men, some security should be obtained that they devote themselves to teaching for a few years at least. . . . The school has done excellent work, and most of the spread of mass education in the neighbourhood of the Civil Station may fairly be ascribed to its influence; but there remains a still larger work to be done in the future."

'ARTISAN SCHOOL.—An artisan's school received a grant-in-aid late in the year. It does not seem to be yet (March 1873) fully at work. The samindars have made a donation of £50 for the construction of a schoolhouse, and they contribute subscriptions to the extent of £6, 10s. od. a month for the support of the school. The teaching consists of reading, writing, and accounts, together with carpenters', tailors', and blacksmiths' arts. I hope that ere long some connection may be established between this school and the District Training School, both of which have for their ultimate object the improvement of the working classes. Perhaps the success of this one artisan school may lead to the opening of schools of the same kind in other Districts.'

POSTAL STATISTICS.—There has been a very considerable increase

in the use of the post office within the past few years. Since 1861-62. the earliest year for which trustworthy statistics are available, the total number of letters, newspapers, parcels, and books received at the Rangpur post office has more than doubled. In 1861-62. the total letters, newspapers, books, etc., received at the Rangpur post office was 97,992, which in 1870-71 increased to 201,207. The number despatched was 80,627 in 1861-62, and 94,407 in 1865-66. I have not been able to obtain the number of letters. etc. despatched from the District post office in 1870-71. The revenue and expenditure of the local post office have both doubled since 1860-61. The total postal receipts amounted to £786, 162.7d. in 1861-62, and £1583, 198. 11d. in 1870-71, exclusive of £135, 9s. 11d., receipts from sale of stamps for official correspondence, making a total revenue from the Rangpur post office in 1870-71 of £1719, 9s. 10d. The postal expenditure amounted to £743, os. 2d. in 1861-62, and to £1408, 16s. 10d. in 1870-71. In the latter year, therefore, the postal service of the District resulted in a profit of £310, 138. od. The following table, exhibiting the number of letters, newspapers, books, etc., received at and despatched from the Rangpur post office, together with the postal receipts and expenditure, for each of the years 1861-62, 1865-66, and 1870-71, is compiled from a return specially furnished to me by the Director-General of Post Offices:-

POSTAL STATISTICS OF RANGPUR DISTRICT.

	186	· 6 2.	1865	-66.	1870	71.
	Received.	Des- patched.	Received.	Des- patched.	Received.	Des- patched.
Letters, Newspapers, Parcels, Books,	85,722 8,287 2,820 1,163	75,862 4,074 473	8,031	89,843 3,124 1,013 427	186,141 7,994 4,435 2,637	Materials not recreed for this column.
Total,	97,992	80,627	83,306	94,407	201,207	*
Sale of postage stamps,	£339 447 786	9 11 6 8 16 7	922	9 2 11 6 0 8	1583	9 0 10 11 19 11°
Total postal ex- penditure,	743	0 2		16 7	1408	16 10

Exclusive of receipts from sale of service stamps for official correspondence, which in 1870-71 amounted to £135, 9s. 11d. Service stamps were first introduced in 1866.

SAVINGS BANK.—A District savings bank was established in Rangpur town in 1871-72. The amount of deposits during the first year it was open amounted to £702, 18s. od. from 21 depositors; the withdrawals amounted to £59.

Money Order Office.—There is also a money order office at the Civil Station. The particulars of the transactions in 1871-72 are as follow:—Number of orders issued, 2151; amount of orders issued, £14,121, 128. 9d.; amount of commission received, £149, 18. 3d.; number of orders paid, 495; amount of orders paid, £4213, 28. 10d.

POLITICAL DIVISIONS.—For administrative purposes, Rangpur District is divided into the two following Subdivisions. The population figures are derived from statements 1A and 1B to the Appendix to the Census Report of 1872. The administrative statistics are taken from the special report furnished to me by the Collector:—

THE SADR OR HEADOUARTERS SUBDIVISION contained in 1872 a total area of 2687 square miles, and a total population of 1,718,226 souls, residing in 2970 villages or townships, and inhabiting 256,527 houses. Out of the total subdivisional population, 994,320 or 57'0 per cent. were Muhammadans, namely, 510,184 males and 484.136 females; proportion of males in the total Musalman population, 51'3 per cent. The Hindus numbered 723.076, or 42'1 per cent. of the subdivisional population, namely, 364,559 males and 358,517 females; proportion of males in total Hindus, 50'4 per cent. The Buddhist population comprised 50 souls, namely, 36 males and 14 females; proportion of males in total Buddhist population, 72'0 per cent. The Christians numbered 71, namely, 34 males and 37 females; proportion of males in total Christian population. 47'9 per cent. The remaining population, consisting of people belonging to other denominations, and not classified separately in the Census Report, is returned at 709, namely, 105 males and 604 females; proportion of males in total 'others,' 14.8 per cent. portion of males of all denominations in total subdivisional population, 50'9 per cent.; average density of the population, 639 per square mile; average number of villages per square mile, 1'11; average number of persons per village, 579; average number of houses per square mile, 95; average number of persons per house. 6.7. The Subdivision comprises the twelve police circles (thánás) of Mahiganj, Nisbetganj, Darwani, Jaldhaka, Dimla, Phuranbari, Barabári, Nágeswari, Alípur, Kumárganj, Malángá, and Pírganj. 1870-71 it contained twelve magisterial and revenue courts, a regular police force of 337 men, and a rural constabulary of 4326 men.

BHAWANIGANJ SUBDIVISION was constituted in 1857. In 1872 it contained a total area of 789 square miles, and a total population of 431,746 souls, residing in 1236 villages or townships, and inhabiting 74,552 houses. Out of the total subdivisional population. 297,145 or 68.8 per cent. were Muhammadans, namely, 151,950 males and 145,186 females; proportion of males in total Muhammadan population, 51'1 per cent. The Hindus numbered 134,222. or 31.1 per cent. of the population, namely, 68,002 males and 66,220 females; proportion of males in total Hindu population, 50'7 per cent. The Buddhist population consisted of 10 males and I female; and the Christians of 2 males and 2 females. remainder of the population was made up of other denominations not separately classified in the Census Report, numbering 366, namely, 135 males and 231 females; proportion of males, 36.8 per cent. Proportion of males of all denominations in total subdivisional population, 51'0 per cent; average density of population, 547 per square mile; average number of villages per square mile, 1.57; average number of persons per village or township, 349; average number of houses per square mile, 94; average number of persons per house, 5.8. The Subdivision comprises the four police circles of Bhawanigani, Chilmari, Sadullapur, and Gobindgani. In 1870-71 it contained two magisterial and revenue courts, a regular police force of 77 men, and a village watch of 1001 men.

FISCAL DIVISIONS.—The Fiscal Divisions (pargands) comprised in Rangour District, with the area in acres, amount of land revenue, and crops in each, have been given in detail, in a tabular form, at pp. 256-259.

MEDICAL TOPOGRAPHY: CLIMATE, ETC.—The climate of Rangpur is generally malarious, owing to the numerous stagnant swamps and marshes filled with decaying vegetable matter. Diseases are most prevalent in the winter and rainy months, but during the remainder of the year the atmosphere is clear and dry, and the District is not then unhealthy. The interior tracts are said to be far more healthy than the neighbourhood of Rangpur town. The Civil Surgeon, in 1870, returned the average temperature of the District to be as follows: -- Maximum, 87°; minimum, 76°; mean, 81'5°. The average annual rainfall for the ten years previous to 1872 was 88 45 inches. The Meteorological Department returns the following as the total monthly rainfall at the Civil Station of Rangpur in 1871: - January and February, nil; March, 2'30 inches; April. 1'40 inch; May, 7'90 inches; June, 21'40 inches; July, 27'80 inches; August, 13'40 inches; September, 19'50 inches; October, 0'45 inch; November and December, nil: total rainfall for the year, 94'15 inches. In the following year, 1872, the monthly rainfall at the Civil Station was returned as follows:- January, nil: February, 0.10 inch; March, 0.61 inch; April, 1.73 inch; May, 10.89 inches; June, 16.49 inches; July, 16.56 inches; August, 13'54 inches; September, 17'64 inches; October, 8'69 inches; November and December, nil: total rainfall for the year, 86:25 In the same year, 1872, the rainfall at the Headquarters of the Bhawaniganj Subdivision was returned as follows:- January. February, and March, nil; April, 3:40 inches; May, 4:23 inches; June, 15'57 inches; July, 25'78 inches; August, 5'49 inches; September, 18:23 inches; October, 6:87 inches; November and December, nil: total rainfall for the year, 70.57 inches.

DISEASES. - The prevailing diseases of Rangpur District are malarious fever and elephantiasis. The fever is lingering, usually attended with spleen and liver complications, and although sometimes of a very obstinate character, is not particularly fatal. Elephantiasis is the result of the humid condition of the country, and generally appears in the form of glands among the females, and hydrocele among the males. Within the past few years there have been repeated outbreaks of cholera; at every police station and outpost cholera-pills are kept for distribution to the patients, and in special cases native doctors are sent into the villages to render assistance. The Civil Surgeon, in his report on the health of the District in 1871, states that in that year 'there was a great deal of cholera, and an unusual prevalence of fever. Cholera prevailed in two seasons under two different conditions of the atmosphere, namely, in April and May, when the vicissitudes of temperature are extreme between the days and nights, and in November and December, when the sudden setting in of wet and dewy nights affects the badly housed and insufficiently clothed people. In April and May the mean daily range of the thermometer was 30.66° and 63.01°, and the deaths from cholera were 262 and 242 respectively. Again, in November and December, the mean of the daily minimum range of the thermometer was 63.90° and 54.48°, while the deaths from cholera were 55 and 112 respectively.' The next year, 1872, was also a

very unhealthy one, and was marked by several severe outbreaks of cholera in different parts of the District. The following tables and paragraphs regarding the mortality and principal diseases prevalent in 1871-72 are taken from the Report of the Civil Surgeon, Dr. Krishna Dhán Ghosh, published in the Report on the Charitable Dispensaries under the Government of Bengal for the year 1872:—

TABLE SHOWING THE REGISTERED MORTALITY IN RANGPUR DISTRICT IN 1872 AS COMPARED WITH 1871.

Pariod.	Choler	Small-por.	Fevers.	Bowel Complants	Injunes, Accidents.	All other causes.	Total Desila
First half-year of 1871, First half-year of 1872, Second half-year of 1871, Second half-year of 1872, Total deaths of 1871, Total deaths of 1872,	550	123	1796	41	87	200	2797
	186	34	3401	50	87	200	3958
	197	26	2174	41	133	128	2695
	1830	61	3008	48	138	240	5325
	747	149	3970	82	220	328	5492
	2016	95	6409	98	225	440	9283

The Civil Surgeon makes the following comments upon the foregoing table:-- 'Even if allowance is made for better arrangements and greater accuracy in the registration in 1872 than in 1871, still it can be inferred that the year under report was more unhealthy than the year previous to it, the total number of registered deaths being 9283 in 1872 against 5492 in 1871. The greater unhealthiness in 1872 is due to the prevalence of cholera and fevers, while the deaths from bowel complaints and injuries show a striking sameness in number in the two years. Deaths from fevers in 1872 were nearly twice as many, and those from cholera nearly three times as many, as in 1871. Comparing the mortality from the two prevalent diseases, cholera and fevers, month by month, as in the following table, it will be seen that cholera, like fever, is an endemic of the District; that in certain seasons of the year it breaks out in the form of an epidemic, and causes much havoc in certain localities. In 1871 there were two such outbreaks. The first began suddenly in April, and lasted till the middle of June; and the second occurred in November, and lasted till the end of January 1872. Last year (1872) the disease showed some signs of an outbreak in May, but did not really become active until July, after which it has been regularly changing site, and is still (1873) prevaiting in the north of the District on the borders of Kuch Behar. Fever also displayed greater virulence in 1872 than in the previous year. It increased about the end of the rainy season of 1871, and prevailed till the middle of the following February, after which the disease began to subside. About the middle of September it again became very prevalent, and raged during the whole of the cold weather of 1872.'

TABLE SHOWING MONTHLY MORTALITY FROM FEVERS AND CHOLERA DURING EACH MONTH IN 1871 AND 1872.

						Cho	lera.	Fee	er.
	Mo	NTHS.				1871.	1872,	1871.	1872.
January, . February, March, .	:		:	:		5	77 4 18	300 301 253	180 670 563
April, . May, .			:	:	:	262 242 26	18 66	374 306 262	578 373 407
June, . July, . August, .	:	:	:	:		19	27 69 73	216 274	396 376
September, October, . November,	•	•	:	•		 8 3 55	95 195 411	263 377 469	454 476 624
December,	•	•	•	•	•	112	987	575	682
						747	2020	3970	6046

The Civil Surgeon gives the following brief history of the outbreaks of cholera in 1871 and 1872:—'Towards the close of the year 1871, cholera was raging badly in the eastern parts of the District between the Brahmaputra and Tístá, comprising the police stations of Bhawáníganj, Chilmárí, Ulípur, and Nágeswarí; but it raged with the greatest virulence on the borders of the Brahmaputra and in the country situated between the junction of the Dharlá with that river above Bagwá, and that of the Tistá near Kámárjaní below, and here it remained almost till the end of February 1872. The disease then subsided for a time. An increased number of cases began to be reported from Bhawáníganj, Chilmárí, and Kámárjaní in May, but it did not assume the shape of an outbreak until the second week of July, when it broke out at Solmári, upon the river

Tista, lying between the adjoining police stations of Pharunbari and Ialdháká. From this point it branched off and extended to the east about 13 miles to Pharunbari, and about 10 miles to the west and south to Kisoriganj. This western extension not only caused much havoc in the villages lying between Jaldháká and Kisorigani, but propagated itself and affected the neighbouring thands of Máhíganj, Nisbetganj, and Kúmárganj on the south, Darwání on the west, and Dimla on the north. This outbreak lasted four months and a half, within which time there were 301 cases reported from the jurisdiction of Jaldháká alone. Although the disease subsided, a few cases continued to be reported from every one of these police stations up to the end of the year. When the disease was subsiding in the west, another outbreak was reported from the eastern part of the District at Bhawanigani, and a third from the north-east at Nageswari and the adjoining outpost of Phulkumar. In the former outbreak, which has now passed away, the disease raged in nine villages, all within a radius of two miles from the police station of Bhawaniganj, and lasted about nine weeks, the number of cases reported being 513. In the latter, 429 cases were reported up to the end of 1872; but the disease is still (1873) continuing rather badly, and a native doctor is giving relief to the people affected.'

MEDICAL CHARITIES.—The table on the next page illustrates the relief afforded by the charitable dispensaries of the District in the year 1872, showing also the proportion of the cost borne by Government, together with the amount realized by private subscriptions or from other local sources.

The following paragraphs exhibit in fuller detail the amount of medical relief afforded by the charitable dispensaries mentioned in the foregoing table. The information is derived from the Charitable Dispensaries Report for the years 1871 and 1872:—

RANGPUR DISPENSARY: established in 1847. This institution is supported by the proceeds of endowments invested in Government securities, yielding a fixed annual income of £68, 14s. od., supplemented by local subscriptions. Government pays the salary of the native doctor, and furnishes European medicines free of charge. The hospital building is a two-roomed brick house with thatched verandahs all round, two sides of which are converted into rooms by means of mat walls. The house is the property of the Dispensary Committee, but is stated to be too small for the purposes

MEDICAL CHARITIES OF RANGPUR DISTRICT IN 1872.

	_		¥ 0	0	•	•		0	0
		<u>.</u>	4 2	9	#	g	+	9	2
	Ì	Total Ex- penditure.		189 1	1 911	130	117	8	745 2
	<u>ا</u>	68	76						
5		g	40	•	0	0	0	°	°
Ğ	ĺ	Paid from other sources.	40	#	60	a	*	2	°
Expenditure		Z ° 8	Z 121	8	%	16	117	&	Sio
国	8	ereigh gir	40	0	0	0			•
	. <u>ş</u>	t Rangpu d Mahiga d Mahiga id by Gov lio value medicine C., suppli y Govt. fr	9,50	a	•	8	i	:	*
	Salaries of	native doctors at Rangpur and Mahigani paid by Govt. also value of modicines, etc., supplied by Govt. free of charge.	χ. 11.5	0	8	33			835
- 4			9 0	0	0	•	0	0	•
000	reludin	medicines, i.c. supplied Cove. free August of Salaries of hive doctors I Rangpur d Mahigani	્રજ્	91	a	a	4	21	7
Total income.	excluding value of	medicines, etc., supplied by Covt. free of charge, and Salaries of native doctors at Rangpur and Mahigani	گر 136	17	\$	-6	11.7	&	497 14
Opera-		Minor.	183	:	:	39	ä	83	38
Š.	8	Capital.	8	:	0	m	•	+	31
100 00	S. L	Average Daily Attendance.	33.48	4 .9	6.42	18.21	47.03	36.62	:
Our-poor	PATI	Total Trea ted.	5378	336	4373	2117	2043	3612	18459
		Daily Average Number of Sick.	£.6	:	:	:	:	3.21	:
١		Percentage of Deaths to total Treated.	69.51	:	:	:	:	37	14.08
Twenty Daments		Remaining at end of yest.	٥	:	:	:	:	м	•
1 6	i M	Died	8	:	:	:	:	H	8
	- - -	Not Improved, or Ceased to Attend.	:	:	:	<u>:</u>	:	a	9
	•	Cured.	139	<u>:</u>	:	:	i	ă	8
		Total Patients Treated.	172	:	:	:	:	27	88
	.bə	When Establish	1847 172	1863	1868	1867	1867	1871	:
		DISTEREMENTS	(1) Rangpur Dispensary,	(a) Bhawáníganj Dispensary	(3) Máhíganj Branch Dispensary.	(4) Bátásun Dispen- sary,	(5) Ulípur Branch Dispensary	(6) Kánkíná Dispen- sary	Total,

Sentence continued from p. 349.]

for which it is designed. In 1872 a sum of £360 was collected by the Civil Surgeon for the purpose of adding a large general ward. He hopes also to be able to provide proper arrangements for seeing out-door patients, better accommodation for females, a separate place for moribund patients, and a good deadhouse. In 1871 the total number of in-door patients treated amounted to 155, of whom 125 were cured or relieved, 26 died, and 4 remained in hospital at the close of the year; average daily number of sick, 9'12. The out-door patients receiving treatment in the same year amounted to 5965, the average daily attendance being 29.93. In the following year, 1872, the figures of relief were as follow:-Total in-door patients treated, 172; cured, 139; died, 27; remaining in hospital at close of the year, 6; daily average number of sick, 9:32. The out-door patients numbered 5378 in 1872, the average daily attendance being 38:48. The high death-rate in the hospital department, namely, 16.7 per cent. in 1871, and 15.7 per cent. in 1872, is owing to the fact that most of the fatal cases were patients who were brought in in a moribund state.

MAHIGANJ BRANCH DISPENSARY: established in 1868. Civil Surgeon reports of this institution in 1872 as follows:-- 'This is an out-door dispensary situated in the heart of the old town of Rangpur, in the neighbourhood of a large market; its distance from the Civil Station is only four miles. As the dispensary is an important one from its situation, I visited it twice a week throughout the year, and this caused a considerable improvement in the attendance. The financial condition is very fair; and the local subscriptions for the year not only sufficed to meet the increasing demands of the institution, but left a surplus of a few hundred rupees.' The salary of the native doctor is paid by Government, and European medicines, etc. are supplied free of charge. There is no accommodation for in-door patients. The total out-door patients treated in 1871 amounted to 3809, the average daily attendance being 18. In the following year the number of patients who received treatment increased to 4373, the daily average attendance being 27.9. The management of the dispensary is in the hands of a committee, composed of the Magistrate, Civil Surgeon, and some samindars and bankers residing in the town.

KANKINA DISPENSARY: established in June 1871 by the late zamindár of Kánkiná, and now maintained by his brother and suc-

cessor, who meets all the expenses of the institution, Government supplying only the European medicines. In the seven months of 1871 subsequent to its establishment, 3023 patients received treatment at this dispensary, the average daily attendance being 41'21. In 1872 an in-door department was added, in which, during the last six months of the year, 27 patients were treated, of whom 21 were cured, 2 were not improved or ceased to attend, 1 died, and 3 remained in hospital at the end of the year; average daily number of sick, 3'51. The out-door patients receiving treatment in 1872 numbered 3612, with an average daily attendance of 36'62.

ULIPUR BRANCH DISPENSARY: established in 1867 by Mahárání Swarnamayi, and since maintained at that lady's entire expense.
The management of the Dispensary is conducted by the superintendent of the Maháráni's Rangpur estates, with the assistance and
advice of the Civil Surgeon. In 1871 there was no accommodation
for in-door patients. The number of out-door patients receiving
treatment in 1871 was 3887, the average daily attendance being
54.50. In the following year an in-door department was added,
but was not finished by the end of the year. The in-door patients
receiving treatment in 1872 numbered 2643, the average daily
attendance being 47.03.

BHAWANIGANJ DISPENSARY: established in 1863. It only provides out-door relief, the number of patients receiving treatment being 256 in 1871, the average attendance being 3.96. In the following year 336 out-door patients received relief, the average daily attendance being 4.9.

BATASUN BRANCH DISPENSARY: established in 1867, and since maintained by the liberality of the local samindar, Government only supplying European medicines and surgical instruments, etc. It has no accommodation for in-door patients. In 1871 it afforded out-door relief to 2105 patients, the daily average attendance being 16.95. In 1872, 2117 persons were treated; average daily attendance, 18.71.

STATISTICAL ACCOUNT

OF

THE DISTRICT OF DINAJPUR

STATISTICAL ACCOUNT

OF THE

DISTRICT OF DINAJPUR.

DINAJPUR, the north-westernmost District of the Rajshahi Kuch-Behar Commissionership or Division, is situated between 24° 43' 40" and 26° 22' 50" north latitude, and between 88° 4' 0" and 89° 21' 5" east longitude. It contains a total area, after recent transfers, as

1 My Account of Dinapur District is chiefly derived from the following sources:-(1) Answers to my five series of questions, furnished by successive District Officers. (2) Geographical and Statistical Report of Dinájpur District, by Major Sherwill, Revenue Surveyor (1863). (3) Bengal Census Report of 1872, by Mr. H. Beverley, C.S., with subsequent District Compilation by Mr. C. F. Magrath, C.S. (4) Reports of the Commissioner of the Rajshahi Division for 1871-72 and 1872-73. (5) Special Report on the Land Tenures of the District, by Bába Hari Mohan Chandra, dated 15th January 1875. (6) Special Report by the Collector on the Rates of Rent prevailing for land growing ordinary crops, dated 31st July 1872. (7) Annual Report of the Inspector-General of Police for 1872. (8) Annual Report of the Inspector-General of Jails for 1872, with special jail statistics for the years 1857-58, 1860-61, and 1870, compiled in his office. (9) Annual Report of the Director of Public Instruction for 1872, with special statistics compiled for the years 1856-57, 1860-61, and 1870-71. Statistics for 1861-62, 1865-66, and 1870-71, furnished by the Director-General of Post Offices. (11) Annual Reports of the Meteorological Department for 1871 and 1872. (12) Medical Report furnished by the Civil Surgeon of the District in 1870. (13) Annual Reports on the Charitable Dispensaries of Bengal for 1871 and 1872. (14) Statement of Areas, Latitudes, and Longitudes, etc., furnished by the Boundary Commissioner of Bengal and the Surveyor-General. (15) Resolution by the Government of Bengal on the Boat Traffic of Bengal, dated 18th October 1875.

The valuable materials contained in the Ms. compilations of Dr. Buchanan Hamilton have not been used in this Account, as they have been reserved for a separate publication by Mr. E. V. Westmacott, C.S., the present Collector of the District.

returned by the Boundary Commissioner of Bengal in November 1874, of 4095'14 square miles, exclusive of the basins of the large rivers. The area as taken for the purposes of the Census was 4126 square miles, but that estimate was only an approximate one. For the sake of uniformity, however, I have adopted the Census area in all my calculations of percentages and averages based upon the population. The total population of Dinájpur District, as ascertained by the Census of 1872, is 1,501,924 persons. The Civil Station and Administrative Headquarters of the District is at Dinájpur town, situated on the east bank of the Purnabhábá river, just below the point of its confluence with the Dhapa river, in 25° 38' o" north latitude and 88° 40' 46" east longitude.

BOUNDARIES.—Dinájpur District is a triangular tract of country. with the acute angle towards the north, lying between the Districts of Talpaiguri and Rangour on the east and Purniah on the west, and in the south bordering on parts of Maldah, Rájsháhí, and Bográ Districts. The details of the boundaries were returned to me by the Collector in 1870 as follows:—On the north-east it is bounded by chaklah Bodá in Jalpáigurí District, and by pargands Kázirhát, Kundi, Batasun, and Barabil in Rangpur District, the rivers Sulai, Bholari, Tista, and Karatoya forming successively the boundaryline; on the south-east by pargands Mukhtipur, Gorághát, Khángaon, Saguna, and Fathijangpur in Bogra District; on the south by parganás Bárbakpur and Jiásindhu in Rájsháhí, and by pargands Bansdol-Paltapur, Shikarpur, Ajhor, Kasimpur, Rajnagar, and Bhaleswari in Maldah District; and on the west by parganás Surjvápur, Báror, and Hátandá in Purniah District, the rivers Nágar and Mahánandá forming a natural boundary-line.

THE TURISDICTION of Dinaipur has undergone considerable When, by the transfer to the East India Company of the diwdni or financial control of Bengal, this District came under British administration, it was notorious for the lawlessness of its inhabitants. In order to enable the administration to cope successfully with the dakdits or gang robbers who infested the roads and rivers, the limits of the District were gradually circumscribed. Mr. Sisson, who administered Dinajpur in 1814, has left his name as the first founder of order. He put down crime and established a night watch.

Certain differences have always existed between the revenue, magisterial, and civil jurisdictions. The cause of this arises from the fact that the criminal jurisdiction is regulated by the natural. boundaries of the District, and the revenue jurisdiction by the old division of the land into pargands. The numerous fluctuations in the jurisdiction are set forth in the following statement of the various fiscal changes which have taken place in Dinajpur District between 1787 and 1870, as ascertained from the Collectorate records:—(1) In 1787-88, several makals or estates, yielding a Government revenue of £14,625 per annum, were transferred to Dinaipur from Murshidabad. Of the estates thus transferred, pargand Silbarsa is now in part subject to the Maldah Collectorate and in part to that of Rájsháhí. Most of these estates are at present in Rájsháhí District, a portion of Barbakpur pargand alone being now included within Dinájpur. (2) In 1789-90, certain other estates, yielding an annual Government rental of £647, 6s. od., were transferred to Dinajpur from Murshidabad. All these, however, have since been annexed to Rájsháhí District. (3) In 1793-94, considerable changes were effected. Dinájpur received from Murshidábád several estates. yielding an annual Government revenue of £27,578, 2s. od.; from Ráisháhí, estates assessed at £851, 6s. od.; from Bhágalpur, estates assessed at £7303, 16s. od.; and from Purniah, estates assessed at £12,234, 4s. od. All these annexations still form part of the District. (4) In the following year, 1794-95, several transfers were made from Dinájpur to other Districts. To Rájsháhí were transferred certain estates, yielding an annual Government revenue of £17,720, 18s. od.; to Purniah, estates yielding £6695, 4s. od.: to Rangpur, estates yielding £902, 125. od.; and to Bardwan, estates yielding £30. (5) In 1797-98, several estates, yielding an annual Government revenue of £3132, 16s. od., were separated from Dinájpur and annexed to Purniah. (6) In 1799-1800, several estates, yielding an annual Government revenue of £11,853, were annexed to Dinajpur District from Rangpur. In the same year, estates yielding a revenue of £2231, 6s. od. were separated from Dinájpur and transferred to Rájsháhí. (7) In the following year, 1800-1, the process was reversed, and Dinájpur made over to Rangpur several estates, yielding an annual Government revenue of £16,549. (8) A long pause followed this change, for it was not till 1833-34 that further transfers appear to have taken place. In that year Dinájpur transferred to Bográ estates yielding an annual Government rental of £519, 4s. od.; and to Maldah, estates yielding a revenue of £4146, 64. od. (9) In 1834-35, Bográ received from

Dinájpur a turther transfer of estates, yielding an annual Government revenue of £602, 6s. od. (10) In 1864-65, Aargund Khattá, with 122 estates and a Government land revenue of £4715, 12s. od., was detached from Dinájpur and annexed to Bográ. (11) In 1868-69, Bográ received a further addition from Dinájpur, by the transfer of several other estates, yielding an annual Government land revenue of £1674, 8s. od. (12) At the date of the Collector's Report (March 1870), the last change had occurred in 1869-70, when a number of estates, yielding an annual Government land revenue of £1023, 10s. od., were separated from Dinájpur and attached to Maldah District.

GENERAL ASPECT OF THE DISTRICT.—Dinájpur District presents no special natural features. The country is generally flat, but towards the south becomes undulating, some of the elevations being about a hundred feet in height. These undulations continue beyond the southern limits of the District as far as the Ganges, and are even reproduced on the southern bank of that river. The Collector thinks it probable that they were caused by the same volcanic action which produced the range known as the Rajmahal Hills. There are also some undulations to the north of the town of Dinájpur, and again to the north-west, running in a line parallel with the Kulik river. The District is traversed in every direction by a network of rivers and water-courses, but, except in the neighbourhood of the Kulik river, presents no picturesque scenery. Along the course of that stream, the undulating ridges alluded to above, and the long lines of mango trees which have been planted, give the face of the country an aspect of beauty which is not found in other parts of the District. There are not many large bils or marshes in Dinájpur, except those which are caused by the overflow of the rivers during the rains, and which at that time are in actual connection with the rivers. They become quite dry, however, about the end of February. The shallow valleys, through which run the numerous rivers traversing the District, have a width of about two or three miles. The soil of these valleys consists of a rich loam resting on clay of a light colour, which at various points along the course of the Karatoya gives place to a reddish-coloured clay. The whole District forms part of the rich arable tract lying between the Ganges and the southern slopes of the Himálayas. As might be expected from its vicinity to the sub-Himálayan ranges, the country has a gradual slope from north to south.

RIVER SYSTEM.—Although essentially a fluvial District, Dinajpur does not possess any river navigable by boats of a hundred maunds, or between three and four tons burden, throughout the year; but the following rivers are navigable by such boats during the rainy season:—(1) Mahananda, (2) Nagar, (3) Kulik, (4) Tángan, (5) Chhirámatí, (6) Purnabhábá, (7) Dhápá, (8) Bráhmaní, (9) Atrái, (10) Garbheswari, (11) Kánkrá, (12) Jamuná, and (13) Karátoyá. About thirty other rivers are navigable by boats of fifty maunds, or two tons burden, during the rainy season. The rivers, as a rule, run in the cold weather through comparatively deep and narrow channels, and at this time are fordable at a great number of points. In the rains they frequently overflow their banks, and give the District the appearance of a succession of long narrow marshes. At this season, boats of fifty maunds burden penetrate into almost every part of the District, and carry away the surplus crops of the previous cold weather to the markets farther to the south. The following is a brief description of each of the principal rivers:-

THE MAHANANDA, after flowing through Purniah District, touches on Dinájpur nea. the small village of Mokundpur in the police circle (tháná) of Hemtábád, and, running southwards, forms the western boundary of Dinájpur for a distance of from twenty-five to thirty miles, leaving the District at its extreme southwest corner. Its principal tributaries on the Dinájpur bank are the Nágar, swollen by the waters of the Kulik, and the Hingal-bhágá. The bed of the Mahánandá is sandy, and its banks are alternately sloping and abrupt, as the current sets from one side of the river to the other. No instances of alluvion or diluvion, or of changes in the course of the river, are reported to have taken place. The river is nowhere fordable during the rains, but in the cold weather may be crossed on foot at several points. The large grain mart of Churáman is situated on the east or lest bank of the Mahánandá.

THE NAGAR approaches Dinájpur District from Purniah at its extreme northernmost point, and flows southwards for about ninety miles, marking the boundary between Dinájpur and Purniah, till it falls into the Mahánandá at the point where the latter river first touches on Dinájpur. The Nágar is navigable by large cargo boats during the rainy season, and by small boats and canoes throughout the year. Its principal tributaries on the eastern or

Dinájpur bank are the Pátki, Singiá, Tiki, Nuná, Gandar, Kayá, and Kulik rivers, the last being by far the most important. The bed of the river is rocky near the northern extremity of the District, but becomes sandy as the stream proceeds southwards; its banks are sloping, and for the most part are waste and uncultivated. No instances of alluvion or diluvion, or of changes in the river course, are reported to have taken place. The stream is fordable in the cold and hot seasons, but not during the rains.

THE KULIK is the principal tributary of the Nágar. It takes its rise in a marsh in the north-west of the police circle (thánd) of Thákurgáon, and after running a course of thirty-six miles through the thánds of Ránísankáil, Pírganj, and Hemtábád, falls into the Nágar near the village of Goráhár, near the point where the latter river joins the Mahánandá. It receives on its east bank the Kalái, which flows into it from the north-west. The important grain-mart of Ráiganj is situated on the Kulik. Its bed is sandy, and its banks, which are sloping, are almost entirely under jungle, and uncultivated.

THE TANGAN enters Dinajpur District from Jalpaiguri on its extreme porthern boundary, near the village of Pánbárá, and, after intersecting the thánás of Thákurgáon, Pírganj, and Hemtábád, and marking the boundary between the thánás of Bángsihárí and Gangárámpur, passes into Maldah District after a course through Dinájpur of about eighty miles, finally falling into the Mahánandá about ten miles below Maldah town. Its principal tributaries in Dinájpur are the Lok river on its west or right bank, which falls into it in the thana of Thakurgaon, and the Tulai on the east or lest bank, in the tháná of Bángsihári. During the rains. the Tángan is navigable by large boats throughout its entire course in Dinajpur District; during the remainder of the year, boats of two or three hundred maunds, or from seven to ten tons burden. can proceed up the river for about fifty miles, and small boats and canoes the entire distance. The bed of the river is sandy; and the channel is confined to parrower limits than with other rivers of equal importance. Its banks are for the most part jungly and uncultivated.

THE CHHIRAMATI takes its rise in a marsh in Hemtábád thánd, and after running a course of about thirty miles through Hemtábád and Bángsihárí thánás, leaves Dinájpur near its south-western corner, and passes into Maldah District, where, after a further

course of a few miles, it falls into the Mahananda river. The bed of the river is sandy, and its banks sloping; the banks are for the most part jungly and uncultivable. It has no tributaries.

THE PURNABHABA takes its rise in a large marsh or bil called the Brahmanpukur in Thakurgaon thand. After passing through the thánds of Bírganj and Rájárámpur, it receives, near the town of Dinájpur, a considerable tributary called the Dhápá; it thence passes in a southerly direction through Gangárámpur thánd, where it sends off a branch called the Brahmani river, and, continuing its southward course through Porshá tháná, passes into Maldah District after a course through Dinappur of about seventy-two miles. finally falling into the Mahananda near Rohanpur. The principal tributaries of the Purnabhábá in Dináipur District are the Nartá. Siáldángá, Dhápá, Ghágrá, Hánchá-katákhál, and Harbhángá on its east or left bank, and the Nuna on its west or right bank. The river is navigable throughout its course for large boats during the rains; for boats of two hundred maunds, or about seven tons burden. as far as Nayábandar from the setting in of the rains up to the end of the year; and for small boats and canoes throughout its entire course during the whole dry season. The bed of the Purnabhábá is sandy, and its banks are sloping or abrupt according as the current sets from one side of the river to the other. Generally speaking, its banks are jungly and uncultivated. No instances of alluvion or diluvion, or of changes in the river course, are reported. During the rainy season, the stream overflows its banks and spreads out into a large bil or marsh below Nitpur, at the point where it leaves the District.

THE DHAPA takes its rise in a marsh called Saselápiálá in the Thákurgáon tháná, about six miles north of the source of the Purnabhábá. It runs southwards through Thákurgáon tháná, and when nearing Bírganj tháná it receives a large addition of water from the Atrái, by means of an artificial canal called the Málíjol; it then passes through Kántánagar tháná, and, as above stated, joins its waters with the Purnabhábá near the town of Dinájpur. Its tributaries, besides the Málíjol canal, are the Bholárí river on its east or left bank, and the Sarsuá on its west or right bank, both of which fall into it in the northern part of Bírganj tháná. The bed of the river is sandy, and its banks either sloping or abrupt according to the set of the current. As a rule, the banks are jungly and uncultivated.

THE BRAHMANI, as above stated, ia an offshoot from the Purnabhábá near Gangárámpur, which, after a course of about eighteen miles, rejoins the parent stream. It has no tributaries or offshoots, and resembles in all respects the river of which it is a branch.

THE ATRAI is the channel by which the waters of the Tista found their way into the Ganges before the change of course of the latter river in 1787-88; and although the Atrái has been thus deprived of its main source of supply, it is said to be still the most important stream in the District. It enters Dinaipur from Rangpur District on the north-east, near the village of Jáigani, and takes a southward course through the thánás of Bírganj, Pátirám, Patnítálá, and Porshá, till it leaves the District on its extreme southern border, after a course of eighty-four miles in a straight line, and passes into Rájsháhí District, finally emptying its waters into the Ganges in Pábná District under the name of the Baral. To the east of Kántánagar, the Atrái sends off a branch called the Gábhurá or Garbheswari from its western bank, which, after a course of fifteen miles, rejoins the parent stream near Sáhibganj. About five miles below the departure of the Gábhurá, it throws off from its opposite bank another branch called Kánkrá, which also rejoins the Atrái about seven miles below the rejunction of the Gábhurá. The chief tributaries of the Atrái within Dináipur District are the Kastuá-khárí, Sátkhariá, Khárí, and the Dharná khál on its west or right bank; and the old Tístá or Karto, Bholi, old Atrái, Jamuná (not the river mentioned below, but another of the same name), and Ichhamati on its east or left bank. The Atrái is navigable throughout its course in Dinajpur District during the rains, and by small boats and canoes in the dry season. It is a sluggish stream, running in a sandy bed, with a wide channel, which at the time of the Revenue Survey of the District, concluded in 1861. was stated to be constantly changing its course. In 1870, however, the Collector reported to me that no instances of alluvion or diluvion, or of changes of course in the channel of the river, had of late taken place. The Atrai being the more direct course of the old Tista, whose waters were diverted into the Brahmaputra in 1787-88, has suffered considerably as a navigable channel in consequence: and Major Sherwill, in his Revenue Survey Report. dated January 1863, states that the large grain-marts in the north of Dinajpur had declined in proportion.

THE JAMUNA, one of the channels of the Tista, enters Dinajpur

in the north-east from Rangpur District. It passes through the thánds of Bírganj, Rájárámpur, Hábrá, and Chintáman, and, after a course of about sixty-five miles, enters Bográ District, finally emptying itself into the Atrái in Rájsháhí District. The principal tributaries of the Jamuná in Dinájpur District are the Chitá and the Talái, which both fall into it on its east or left bank. The river is navigable for large boats during the rains, and for small boats during the dry season. The river bifurcates at Jáipur, and re-unites at Itákátá; the eastern channel is called the chhotá or little, and the western the bará or great Jamuná.

The Karatova forms the eastern boundary of the District for above fifty miles, separating Dinájpur from Rangpur. The numerous changes which have taken place in the course of this river, and its frequent change of name, render it very difficult to trace its waters. It is a sluggish and tortuous stream, navigable for large boats during the rains, and for small boats and canoes during the dry season. Its principal tributaries on its western or Dinájpur bank are the Kálá-nadí, the Narsilá, and the Mará-nadí. The bed of the river is sandy; the banks are sloping or abrupt according to the current, and are, generally speaking, jungly and uncultivated. The principal grain-marts situated on this river in Dinájpur are Ráníganj and Gorághát. The town of Nawábganj is situated on the banks of the old Karátoyá. A further account of the Karátoyá river will be found in my Statistical Account of Rangpur and Jalpáigurí District.

None of the rivers mentioned above are fordable during the rains; but in the cold months and hot season they are all capable of being crossed, the larger rivers at certain particular points, and the smaller streams anywhere. None of the rivers form islands or permanent lakes. There are few permanent large marshes in Dinájpur, although some are found in the northern parts of the District, the configuration of the country and the general drainage-slope being unfavourable to their formation. In the rainy months, shallow marshes and pools are formed by the spill water of the rivers, but this gradually drains off, and by February these inundated low-lying tracts are generally quite dry.

Major Sherwill, in his Revenue Survey Report for Dinájpur, dated January 1863, after a brief account of the principal streams in the District, makes the following remarks respecting the effects of the change of course of the Tistá in 1787 upon the rivers of

Dinájpur, and the future prospects of the small streams:—'These rivers, together with numerous minor ones and endless small streams and kháls, all of which have a more or less southerly course. and flow eventually into the great Ganges, are so connected with each other as to form a complete network over the entire District; but since the waters of the Tista have been turned into the Brahmaputra from their original course, the Atrái, Purnabhábá, Jamuna, and Karátoyá rivers have diminished very considerably, and are rendered of less importance for commercial purposes, and the trade in many of the largest grain-marts in the north of the District has fallen off. The beds of many small rivers have become silted up and choked; but independently of the loss of a large body of water formerly brought down by the old Tista, the natural inclination of the rivers in this District, as everywhere else in Bengal, is to silt up, and it is probable that in the course of a few years the number of perennial streams will have considerably lessened. Half filled-up beds of former rivers may now be seen all over the District, forming long stagnant marshes and pools, the feeding places of numerous kinds of aquatic birds and wild fowl. Where the beds have become entirely filled up, rich crops of rice are grown; and where only partially filled up, they are very favourable to the growth of spring crops of marsh rice, known as boro dhan, and also to the pithy water plant called solá (Aschynomene paludosa), so extensively used in India for the manufacture of light hats.'

CANALS.—Dinájpur District also contains several canals; but some of them appear to have been dug more with a view to facilitate religious processions than as a means of assisting traffic. The principal of these canals are:—(1) The Málijol, which unites the Atrái and Dhápá rivers; (2) Rámdárá No. 1, 12 miles in length; (3) Rámdárá No. 2, 11 mile in length; (4) Bráhmaní canal; (5) Bháduriákhárí; and (6) Bunákhárí. Of these, the firstnamed four are artificial. The Malijol, Brahmani, Bhaduriakhari, and Bunákhárí are navigable for ordinary trading boats during the rains. The Malliol and Brahmani are both very ancient, and were originally excavated for mercantile purposes. The two Rámdárá canals were dug by Rájá Rám Náth of this District. One extends along the east side of the Darisling road for a distance of twelve miles from Prannagar to Gobindnagar, where it falls into the Tángan river. The Collector states that it was dug for the purpose of allowing the Raja to visit the Gobindnagar temple, containing a family idol. The second Rámdárá canal is only one and a half mile long, and extends from the Rájá's house to a tank named Anandaságar, where there is another family idol.

RIVER TRAFFIC.—In the rains there is a considerable river traffic to and from every part of the District. The want of roads in the interior tracts, and the heavy cost of land transport even where roads exist, compel the holders of grain and other staples to wait until the rivers are open before they can send their produce to market. The principal river-side trading villages and produce depôts in Dinájpur District are the following:-(1) On the Mahánandá—Churáman, in the police circle (thánd) of Kállagani, is a village of considerable importance as a seat of trade. (2) On the Nágar, the principal trading villages are the following:-Atward, also a police outpost station; Kálíaganj, Madanmálá, Jagádal, Haripur, Kásimpur, and Udáipur. (3) On the Kulik, the principal seats of trade are Raiganj in Hemtabad thana, and Bhawanipur in Ránísankáil tháná. (4) On the Tángan—Thákurgáon, Ráníganj. Asání, Kálkámárá, Síbpur, Nischintipur, and Bangsihárí. (5) On the Chhirámatí-Akbarnagar on the eastern, and Dhánkáil on the western bank of the river. (6) On the Purnabhaba-Dinajpur town, Birganj, Kankánagar, Damdama, Champátalá, Nawábázár. Chaluapati, Ghughudanga, Nayabandar, Gangarampur, Khardaha, and Nitpur. (7) On the Dhapa—Birganj, also the headquarters of a police circle, and of the jurisdiction of a Subordinate Civil Judge (Munsif), and Kantanagar. (8) On the Kankra-Kaligani and Chirirbandar. (9) On the Jamuna-Berampur, Kantla, Jaipur, Jamálganj, Phulbári, Khayerbári, and Muhammadpur. (10) On the Tilái, a tributary of the Jamuná—Hábrá. (11) On the Atrái -Jáiganj, Khánsámáganj, Bhusi, Sáhibganj, Názírganj, Samjhiá, Kumárganj, Pátirám, Págli, Rángámáti, Patnitálá, Masidhá, Mahádebpur, Fakirganj, Tárá, Kumárganj, Chándganj, Chak Gopál, Brahmapur, and Bálughát. (12) On the Karátoyá-Nawábganj, Ráníganj, Gorághát, Fakirganj, Narangábád, Madanganj, Kayaganj, Bhawanipur, and Gumaniganj. The principal trade carried on at these large market villages is in rice, tobacco, gunny-cloth, sugar, and jute.

FISHERIES.—Two large villages, namely, Ráiganj on the Kulik, and Dhánkáil on the Chhirámatí, are the principal fishing villages, and contain a considerable population, who subsist almost exclusively by fishing. The rivers and canals abound in fish; but the Collector, in his Report to me in 1870, states that it is impossible

to form any estimate of the value of the fisheries, or of the proportion of the inhabitants that live by fishing only, as almost all the agricultural population catch fish, either for food or for sale, when opportunities offer. The Census Report of 1872 returns the total number of Hindu fishing and boating castes at 31,206, or 2.08 per cent. of the total District population. The Muhammadans, however, form 52.8 per cent. of the District population; and supposing the proportion of fishing and boating classes to be the same among the Muhammadans as the Hindus, the proportion of the total population maintained by fishing and boating would be about 5 per cent. A list of fishes is given on the opposite page.

None of the rivers or marshes in Dinájpur District have been embanked with a view to their reclamation and the extension of cultivation, nor are they utilized as reed or cane-producing grounds. The long-stemmed varieties of rice are not cultivated in the marshes of this District.

Forests and Jungle Products.—Sal forests are scattered here and there. The tree is found principally along the course of the Karátoyá river, in parganás Gorághát, Khás Táluk, and Swarúpput. growing in small forest patches, called by the natives sál-báns; outlying patches of sal forest are also found in other pargands. The Collector states that although these small forests yield a considerable revenue to the landholders, the trees are stunted in growth and the wood of an inferior quality. The forests generally beaf the name of the villages near which they are situated. The jungle products are bees-wax, anantámul and sátámul, indigenous vegetable drugs, and the flowers of a tree called singahar, from which a dye is made. No castes or tribes subsist entirely by collecting and trading in jungle products. Large breadths of pasture-land are scattered throughout the District. These pay no rent; and some of the peasantry engage in pasturing cattle in these tracts as an additional means of subsistence.

FERÆ NATURÆ.—The following paragraphs regarding the feræ naturæ of Dinájpur District are extracted from Major Sherwill's Revenue Survey Report:—'The following wild animals are found in Dinájpur District—the tiger, leopard, civet cat, tiger cat, pole cat, ordinary wild cat, buffalo, wild hog, bará singha or large deer, hog deer, jackal, fox, mongoose, alligator, badger, tortoise, etc. Tigers, leopards, and pigs are found all over the District. Buffaloes are common, but are confined to the dense jungles to the south. In

jungly tracts, the villagers will never remain out late in the evening. or move out early in the morning, for fear of wild animals; nor will they willingly enter the jungles, seeing no reason, they say, why they should give their lives to the tigers and pigs. Tigers mostly infest the dense tangled jungle and grass patches; leopards are found everywhere, and numbers of cows and goats are annually destroyed by them; buffaloes and pigs commit great havoc amongst the sugar-cane and rice cultivation. Doms and other low-caste Hindus hunt tigers, leopards, deer, and boars with packs of pariah dogs. Their weapons are guns, spears, clubs, and bows and arrows. Some samindars keep shikdris or huntsmen for the purpose of keeping down wild hogs, which would otherwise overrun the cultivation, and drive away the tenants. Water-fowl, snipe, land and water rails, hares, peacocks, partridges, quail, and plovers, all of which are plentiful, are almost disregarded, and made no use of by the native population. Birds are numerous, and many of the species are very beautiful. The following are amongst those most popularly known:-Common wild duck, shoveller, widgeon, common teal, whistling teal, merganser, Brahman goose, common Indian wild goose, cooti, diver, gull, shearwater, cormorant, large crane, demoiselle crane, stork, green heron, paddy-bird, sand-piper, sand-martin, numerous varieties of wader, and web-footed birds of all sorts, jackdaw, jay, magpie, woodpecker, kingfisher, water-wagtail, hoopoe, skylark, green and blue pigeon, dove, starling, crow, raven, sparrow, kite, vulture, osprey, kestrel, sparrow-hawk, eagle, black partridge, quail, snipe, lapwing, golden plover, peacock, and night birds of various kinds. One of the latter, which is very common, makes a noise all night long closely resembling the blow of a woodman's hatchet on the trunk of a dry tree. Ortolans are very abundant when in season.' The principal varieties of fish met with in the District are thus returned :- Air, báchá, bágháir, bágháuli, báim, bhangná, baliá, beus, balkyá, bhedá, boáil, chandá, chelá, chingri, chitál, dari, dankoná, gagar, guchar, hilsá, ichhá ox bará chingri, hái, kánklá, hatlá, khayrá kharsalá, kharki, kunchi, mirgal, nadan, pábdá, punthi, pangás, ruhi, saranphuli, saul, and urát.

The cost to Government of keeping down wild beasts at different periods is returned as follows:—In 1800-1 the sum of £266 was paid on this account; from 1824 to 1829 the payments averaged £63, 42 od. per annum; from 1844-45 to 1848-49, £4, 10s. od. per annum; and from 1867-68 to 1869-70, £19, 12s. od. per annum.

The number of deaths from wild beasts reported to the police averaged 37 per year for the five years ending 1869-70; the loss of life from snake-bite during the same period averaged 147 per year. No reward has ever been given for the destruction of venomous snakes in Dinájpur District. There is no trade in wild-beast skins; and with the exception of the fisheries and a little traffic in ortolans, which are caught and sold to the European residents during the cold and hot-weather months, the fere nature do not contribute towards the wealth of the District.

POPULATION.—The earliest recorded attempt at an enumeration of the population of Dinájpur appears to have been made in 1808 by Dr. Buchanan Hamilton, in his Statistical Survey of the District. At that time Dinájpur comprised a considerably larger area than at present, and apparently included the police circles (thánás) of Maldah and Gájol in the present district of Maldah, and of Khetlál, Pánchbíbí, and Badalgáchhí, now within Bográ District. Buchanan Hamilton returns the area of Dinájpur District in his time at 5374 square miles; and estimated the population at three million souls, giving an average pressure of 558 persons to the square mile. This is considerably in excess of the average density of the population as ascertained by the Census of 1872, the results of which are fully detailed in the following pages.

At the time of the Revenue Survey of the District (1857-61), the area included within the Dinájpur Survey (which included certain tracts belonging to neighbouring Districts) was returned at 4586 square miles. The number of houses within this tract were counted, and estimated to contain a population of 1,042,832 souls, or an average pressure on the soil of only 227 persons per square mile. The Survey estimate was probably below the mark, as Buchanan Hamilton's appears to have been above it.

A careful and exact Census of the population was taken by authority of Government in January 1872. The arrangements for taking the Census of Dinájpur were elaborated beforehand with great care, and are thus described at pp. 19, 20 of the Bengal Census Report of 1872:—'In Dinájpur, the officers in charge of thánás (police circles) were furnished with tracings from the inch-to-themile map, each village being distinguished by its survey number, and corresponding catalogues of the villages were prepared for each tháná. "About a year before," writes the Joint Magistrate, "the chaukláár! (police) registers had been thoroughly revised and the

population roughly counted, without any anticipation of a Census. The police at each thank were furnished with the catalogue of villages agreeing with the map and with the traced map, and told to re-write their chaukiddri registers according to them, reporting where they could not find the villages, or where they found villages not shown in the catalogues. This may seem a simple matter, but in practice it was found very difficult. For instance, I found at Patnitala police station that there were six villages named Chak Gobind. The clerks who had traced the maps had made several blunders, which could easily be corrected by the map; but neither the darged (Sub-Inspector of Police) of Patnitals, nor any other darred in the District, had any idea how to use a map for the purpose. Moreover, the real names differed frequently from those given in the map. How the officers who made the survey and maps settled the boundaries, I know not. But although, as far as regards Purniah and Rangpur and most of the internal thands, I found the boundaries correct, yet when we came to the borders of Maldah and Bográ, which originally formed part of this District, and also the borders of Rajshahi, the number of villages we had to take over or to make over was found to be very great. In the case of Patnitálá, originally a large tháná, the number of villages taken over from Bográ has been so great that it will be necessary to divide the tháná in two. We took the map supplied to us as our standard, and altered all our boundaries to agree with it. When the chaukidárí registers were ready, we found it was a universal rule that the chaukidar had only to do with one samindar, and that the patuari who collected the rent for the zamindár had always under him the beat of one or more chaukidars entire. This simplified matters greatly. There is not a single household in the District which is not included in a chaukidar's beat, or which is not included in the rent-roll of a patrodri. We communicated, therefore, with the patwaris through the chaukidars, warning the samindars courteously that their servants must assist Government in taking the Census,"

'The Magistrate remarks: "The entire work has been performed by indigenous agency, and performed creditably and without any difficulty. I was on tour while the Census was being taken, and everywhere found the patwaris at work in the most natural manner. The patwaris in this District are nearly all mandais or heads of villages, and possessed, therefore, of the requisite local knowledge.

Their co-operation was heartily given, and made the taking of the Census a comparatively easy matter."

The plan of taking the Census simultaneously throughout the District, as elsewhere in the Division, was found difficult of execution in Dinaipur, and was therefore abandoned, the enumeration being made on different days in different parts of the District. As regards accuracy, the Joint Magistrate states: 'I think it will be a fair enumeration of the resident population, though not worth much as regards sojourners and wayfarers.' The results of the Census disclosed a total population of 1.501.024 souls, dwelling in 7108 villages, and inhabiting 264,526 houses; average density of the population, 364 per square mile; average number of persons per village, 211; average number of persons per house, 57. The total cost of taking the Census of the 1,501,924 inhabitants of Dinájpur District amounted to £,176, 18. 8d.

The table on the opposite page, exhibiting the density of the population, with the number of villages, houses, etc. in each police circle (tháná) of Dinájpur District, is reproduced verbatim from the Census Report of 1872.

Population crassified according to Sex and Age.—The total population of Dinájpur District consisted in 1872 of 1,501,924 souls, namely, 776,431 males, and 725,493 females. Proportion of males in the total population, 51'7 per cent.; average density of the population, 364 to the square mile. Classified according to religion and age, the Census gives the following results:-Hindus-under twelve years of age, males 133,819, and females 109,839; total 243,658: above twelve years of age, males 228,248, and females 230,329; total 458,577. Total of Hindus of all ages, males 362.067. and females 340,168; grand total 702,235, or 46.8 per cent. of the District population; proportion of males in total Hindu population, 51 6 per cent. Muhammadans-under twelve years of age. males 158,661, and females 122,199; total 280,860: above twelve years, males 252,174, and females 260,181; total 512,355. Total of Muhammadans of all ages, males 410,835, and females 382,380; grand total 203,215, or \$2.8 per cent. of the District population; proportion of males in total Muhammadan population, 51.8 per cent. Buddhists-under twelve years of age, males 62, and females 56; total 118; above twelve years, males 89, and females 88; total 177. Total of Buddhists of all ages, males 151, and females 144; grand Sentence continued on page 372.

OF POPULATION, AREA, ETC., OF EACH POLICE CIRCLE (THAMA) IN DINAJPUR DISTRICT, 1879.

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7108 264,526 1,901,984 364 1-72 211 64	
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Sentence continued from page 370.]

total 295; proportion of males in total Buddhist population, 51'2 per cent. Christians-under twelve years of age, males 51, and females 42; total 93: above twelve years, males 87, and females 91; total 178. Total of Christians of all ages, males 138, and females 133; grand total 271; proportion of males in total Christian population, 50.9 per cent. Other denominations not separately classified, and consisting mainly of aboriginal tribes and races—under twelve years of age, males 1102, and females 990; total 2092: above twelve years, males 2138, and females 1678: total 3816. Total of 'others' of all ages, males 3240, and females 2668; grand total 5908, or 4 per cent. of the total District population: proportion of males in total 'other' population, 54.8 per cent. Population of all religions—under twelve years of age, males 293,695, and females 233,126; total 526,821: above twelve years, males 482,736, and females 492,367; total 975,103. Total population of all ages, males 776,431, and females 725,493; grand total 1,501,924; proportion of males in total District population, 51.7 per cent.

The percentage of children not exceeding twelve years of age in the population of different religions is returned in the Census Report as follows:-Hindus-proportion of male children 19'1 per cent, and of female children 15.6 per cent.; proportion of children of both sexes 34.7 per cent, of the total Hindu population. Muhammadans-male children 2000, and female children 15:4 per cent.; proportion of children of both sexes 35.4 per cent. of the total Muhammadan population, Buddhists-male children 21'o, and female children 10'0 per cent; proportion of children of both sexes 40 per cent. of the total Buddhist population. Christiansmale children 18.8, and female children 15.5 per cent.; proportion of children of both sexes 34'3 per cent, of the total Christian popu-Other denominations not separately classified—male children 186, and female children 168 per cent.; proportion of children of both sexes 35'4 per cent. of the total 'other' population. Population of all religions—male children 19.6, and semale children 15.5 per cent.; proportion of children of both sexes 35.1 per cent. of the total District population. The small proportion of girls to boys, and the excessive proportion of females above twelve years of age to males of the same age, is probably due to the fact that natives consider girls have attained womanhood at a much earlier age than boys reach manhood. The proportion of the sexes of all ages, namely, males 51.7, and females 48.3 per cent., is probably correct. The excess of males over females is explained by the fact that there is an insufficiency of local labour, and during the reaping season (the time of the year at which the Census was taken) large bodies of labourers flock to Dinájpur from neighbouring Districts.

INFIRMITIES.—The number and proportion of insanes and of persons afflicted with certain other infirmities in Dinajpur District is thus returned in the Census Report:—Insanes—males 379, and females 144; total 523, or '0348 per cent. of the District population. Idiots—males 31, and females 15; total 46, or '0031 per cent. of the population. Deaf and dumb—males 327, and females 131; total 458, or '0305 per cent. of the population. Blind—males 522, and females 264; total 786, or '0523 per cent. of the total population. Lepers—males 475, and females 98; total 573, or '0382 per cent. of the population. The total number of male infirms amounts to 1734, or '2233 per cent. of the total male population; number of female infirms 652, or '0899 per cent. of the total female population. The total number of infirms of both sexes is 2386, or '1588 per cent. of the total District population.

I omit the returns of the population according to occupation, as they do not stand the test of statistical criticism.

ETHNICAL DIVISION OF THE PEOPLE.—The great mass of the population (99.6 per cent.) consists of Hindus and Muhammadans, with a small sprinkling of Buddhists, Christians, and aboriginal tribes, which make up the remaining 4 per cent. of the population. The Hindus are somewhat fewer in point of numbers than the Muhammadans, but as a body they occupy a more respectable social position. The larger landholders are nearly all Hindus, as also are the wealthy traders and merchants. A few among the Muhammadan population are the descendants of the original Musalman conquerors of the country, but the great bulk of them are descended from the low-caste Hindus, who were converted by force or otherwise to the faith of Islam, and are known as Nasya Muhammadans. The Census Report ethnically divides the population as follows:-Europeans, 21; aboriginal tribes, 4431; semi-Hinduized aborigines, 505,527; Hindu castes and people of Hindu origin (including native Christians), 198,730; Muhammadans, 793,215. Total, 1,501,924.

I take the following details from Mr. C. F. Magrath's District

374 STATISTICAL ACCOUNT OF DINAIPUR.

Census Compilation for Dinájpur. The list of Hindu castes will be reproduced on a subsequent page, but arranged in a different order to that given here, according to the rank in which they are held in local public esteem.

Hands of Mattenality, Trees, on Caste,	Fumber.	NAME OF HATIOMALITY, TRIDE, OR CASTE.	Humber.
L—NON-ASIATICS.		2. Semi-Hindwised Aborteines—continued.	
English, Irish,	14		
a destab	3	Dom,	1,242
Welsh	3	Doeddh,	948
		Hári.	35.325
TOTAL OF NON-ASIATICS,	21	Kárancá	253
		Khyen,	2,714
II.—ASIATICS.		Koch,	30,605
Natives of India and		Páli,	326,971
Birmel.		Rájbensi,	86,351
1. Abertrical Tribes.		Mái,	3
Kol,	116	Milhter.	1,446 1,336
Santál.	1,039		792
Dhángar,	2,907	Musikar,	114
Nat.	20	Pási,	94
Bakkho,	20		
Telengá. Paháriya,	948	Total, .	505,5274
The '	110	I	·
· · · · ·	1250	z. Hindu.	1
Total	4.431	(L) SUPERIOR CASTER	
		Brihmen.	1
2. Semi-Hinduised	i	Rájput,	6,269
Aboriginas.	ł	Ghát wál.	1,813
Biedi.	152		35
Bágdí,		Total, .	8,117
Bieri.	384	l	
Bediya,	1,704	(ii.) Intermediate Castes	ļ
Blad	117	, ,	1
Bund, Chain	3,139	Kayasth,	-4.523
Chámár and Muchi.	337	Baidya,	585
Kuril	3,119	Total, .	5, 106
Chandál,	7.371	1000,	2,100
	, ,,,,,	l	

^{1 170} of these are erroneously entered in the General Census Report as Urivia.

Transferred from xiv. of Hindu castes.

³ Transferred from Semi-Hindnised Aborigines.

This total differs from that given in the General Census Report, by the transfer of 2ng Bhars to aboriginal tribes, by the inclusion of 4 Pfisis from non-Asiatics, where they were erroneously returned as Pareis, and by the transfer of 250 unspecified Hindus erroneously included under the heading of Chámár and Muchi, and 237 unspecified Hindus erroneously included under the heading 'Othera.'

Name of Mationality, Tribe, or Caste.	Number.	Name of Nationality, Tries, or Castr.	Number.
(iil) Trading Castes.		(viii.) ARTISAN CASTES.	
		Kimir (blocksmith),	3,659
Agarwala and Marwari, .	1,258	Visadel Chronier	313
Khatri,	14	Sonir (geldenith), Sutradide (expenier), Rijmistri (mason),	400
Dicheria	10	Setrodia (corposis)	675
Gendhébenik, · ·	1,331 888	Rijelski (mason),	6,00
Subernábeník, · ·	822	Kumár (potter), Sánkhári (shell-cutter),	
Total	3,601	Láberi (lac-worker),	'22
iou, .	3,001	Teli (eilmen),	5.971
(iv.) PASTURAL CASTE.	ļ	Kalu (ditto).	1,684 6,685
•	4,280	Sunri (distiller), · ·	4,005
Godlé,		Total, .	25.578
(v.) CASTES ENGAGED IN		1	
PREPARING COOKED FOOD	. 1	(iz.) WEAVER CASTES.	1 1
Gánrár	1,053	Tinti.	12,500
Halwai	546	logi	7.741
	1,628		3,281
Total, .	1,020	Kápáli,	61
		Dhuniya,	<u> </u>
(vi.) AGRICULTURAL CASTES.		Total	23,969
	38,301		
Kaihartta,	2,316	(L) LABOURING CASTES.	
Agari,	57	Politica	340
Chásá Dhopá,	28	Chapter	201
Besié	210	Masimil	1
Hákár, . · ·	2,600		550
Bárai,	7 13		330
Támbuli, Máli	2,18	(xi.) CASTE ENGAGED IN	l
Koeri.	211	STILING FISH AND	
Kurmi	40	VEGETABLES.	i
	46,53	- 1//	65
Total, .	44.33		.
(vil.) CASTES ENGAGED	.	(zil) BOATING AND FISH	·
CHIEFLY IN PERSONAL		ING CASTES.	10,296
SERVICE.		Jália,	1,906
Dhobá	2,17		679
Hájjám and Nápit,	11,65	3 Málá,	. Szt
Behara.	5.77		24
Káhár, Dhánuk,	75	Tier.	17,36
Dhának, · ·	·	Murivári.	. 19
1	20,45	-1 - ()(יעי ן .

¹ z₄6 too many were erroneously included in the Census Report.

² Differs from General Census Report, by 1680 unspecified Hindus erroneously returned under this head.

^{8 1302} wrongly given in excess in the General Census Report.

Name of Nationality, Tribe, on Caste.	Number,	Mame of Nationality, Tribe, or Caste.	Number.
(zii.) Boating and Fish- ing Castes—conid. Machua.	179	4. Persons of Hindu Origin not recognising Caste.	_
Gonrhi,	27	Vaishnav,	16,710 3 187
Total, .	31,206	Goskin,	30 250
(ziii.) Dancer, Musician, Beggar, and Vagabond Caster		Total, .	17, 180
Báití,	600	5. Muhammadans.	
Mirásí,	19	Juláhá,	74
Total, .	619	Mughul,	574
(xiv.) Persons enume- bated by Nationality only.		Sayyid,	164 343 792,058
Urivá, Bhutiá,	8 7	Total, .	793,215
Total, .	15	TOTAL OF NATIVES OF	;
(xv.) Persons of Un- known or Unspecified	ol .	India,	1,501,903
CASTES,	9,783	l	1
Grand Total of Hindus	181,550	Grand Total, .	1,501,924

IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION.—A little immigration is attracted to the District, but it is mostly of a temporary character. At harvest time a number of labourers come to Dinájpur from neighbouring Districts as reapers, and readily obtain 4 dnnds (6d.) a day for their work. Day-labourers also come from Rájmahal to the large riverside marts, from January to March, to husk rice for the grain merchants. Dhángar coolies also come regularly every year to Dinájpur to work on the roads, or to clear jungle for the zamindárs. They usually return to their homes about April or May; but many are willing to remain all the year round if assured of permanent good wages, i.e. not less than Rs. 5 (10s.) a month. Apart from the above, there are no internal movements of labour. The trade centres remain the same, and the people who come for work resort usually to the same places year after year. Emigration from the District there is none.

CASTES.—The following is a list of 89 Hindu castes met with

in Dinájpur District, arranged as far as possible in the order in which they rank in local public esteem, and showing their occupanation, etc. The figures indicating the number of each caste are taken from Mr. C. F. Magrath's District Census Compilation for Dinajpur. It should be mentioned that, in addition to the special occupation of each caste, nearly every household follows agriculture as an auxiliary means of subsistence,—cultivating small plots of land themselves if poor, or by means of hired labour or by undertenants if well off. The following eight castes rank highest :-- (1) Brahman; members of the priesthood, landholders, traders, and also employed in Government or private service. The Brahmans are traditionally said to have settled in Dinajpur in comparatively recent times, but are now distributed generally throughout the District. The principal family names among them are Mukhápádhyá. Chatápádhyá, Gangápádhyá, Bandápádhyá, Chakrabartti, Bhattáchariya, Maitra, Sandyal, and Bagchi. The Census Report of 1872 returned the number of Brahmans in Dinajpur District at 6269. (2) Kshattriya; the second or warrior caste in the ancient Hindu social organization. At the present day it is believed that there are no pure Kshattriyas in Bengal, although several castes aspire to the dignity. The caste returned as 'Khatri' in the Census Report is the great trading class of Northern India. Their number in Dinájpur in 1872 is returned at 1258. (3) Rájput; employed in military service, and as guards, policemen, and doorkeepers. They claim to be Kshattriyas. Number in Dinájpur District in 1872, 1813. (4) Ghátwál; not a separate caste, but a class claiming Kshattriyahood, whose profession it was in olden days to keep the roads and paths open and free from robbers, in return for which service they received rent-free grants of land. At the present day they are employed in ordinary police service. Number in Dinajpur District in 1872, 35. (5) Baidyá; hereditary physicians by caste occupation, but many of them are now engaged in other pursuits, and are landholders, merchants, clerks, etc.; 585 in number. (6) Kayasth; the writer caste of Bengal, employed as Government servants and clerks; many are also merchants and landholders; 4523 in number. (7) Agarwálá and Márwári; up-country traders and merchants, claiming to belong to the Vaisya or great trading caste of ancient India, but which is now believed to be extinct: 100 in number. (8) Oswál; also an up-country trading caste; 14 in number.

PURE SUDRA CASTES.—The following thirteen represent the pure Sádra castes, from whose hands a Bráhman may receive water or uncooked food without injury to his caste. Originally these respectable Súdra castes were only nine in number, called the nobledks; but some of them have split up into subdivisions, all of which hold equal mak, while others, by virtue of their mealth or anusbers, have succeeded in forcing themselves upwards from a lower grade into a position of social respectability. (a) Napit; barbers; 11,653 in number. Nearly every village contains one household at least belonging to this caste. Besides his occupation as barber, the Napit performs certain special ceremonies on occasions of marriages and other ceremonies. (10) Kámár or Karmákár; blacksmiths; 3650 in number. On occasions of sacrifice, it is the Kámár who slays the offering. (11) Kumár or Kumbhákár; potters and makers of earthenware idols. The Kumáss in Dinálpur District also work as well-diggers, which is not the case elsewhere. The reason of this probably is, that they make the great eartherwise cylinders with which the wells are lined. Number in 1872, 6408. (12) Sadgop; the highest of the cultivating castes. This caste is divided into two,-the Sadgops proper, who are engaged solely in agriculture, and the Palá Gops, who also trade in dairy produce. Number in 1872, 2316. (13) Tambuli or Tamli; san growers and sellers by caste occupation, but most of them have now taken to trade and money-lending, and have raised themselves to the rank of well-to-do shopkeepers and merchants; 13 in number. (14) Barui; Adn growers and sellers, who still follow their hereditary employment; 2606 in number. (15) Tell or Till; originally oil-pressers and sellers, and not considered as one of the respectable Súdra castes. Most of them, however, have now abandoned their ancient occupation and taken to trade, and by their wealth and numbers have succeeded in pushing themselves upwards in the social scale. Number in Dinájpur District in 1872, 5271. (16) Máli; gardeners, flower sellers, and workers in pith (sold); 2184 in number. (17) Gandhábanik; traders, shopkeepers, and dealers in spices and drugs; 1331 in number. (18) Báisbaniá; traders and merchants: 10 in number. (19) Sánkhárí; shell-cutters and makers of shell bracelets and ornaments; 179 in number. (so) Kánsári; braziers, coppersmiths, and workers in bell-metal; 313 in number. (21) Agurf; a respectable mixed cultivating caste; 57 in number.

INTERMEDIATE SUDRA CASTES.—The following eighteen form the

intermediate Súdra castes; they are neither esteemed nor despised, but have some claim to respectability. (22) Godlá; milkmen and cowherds; many are also employed as domestic servants in respectable families; 4280 in number. (23) Kaibartta; cultivators, Schermen, and boatmen; 38,301 in number. (24) Ganrar; sellers of parched and cooked vegetable food, such as chird, etc.; 108s in number. (25) Halwai; sweetmeat-makers and confectioners; 546 in number. (26) Vaishnay; not a separate caste, but a sect of Hindus professing the principles inculcated by Chaitanya, a religious reformer of the sixteenth century. Although its main doctrine is the renunciation of caste and the declaration of the equality of man, caste principles are said to be now creeping into the sect, and the higher class of Vaishnavs, many of whom are well-to-do men, will not intermarry nor mix in any way with the lower class. The sect now includes large numbers of wandering religious mendicants. who desire to lead a life free from the restraints imposed by the caste system. A great many prostitutes style themselves Vaishnavs. The number of this sect in Dinajpur District in 1872 is returned in the Census Report at 16,710. (27) Gossin; priests and religious instructors of the Vaishnavs; 30 in number. (28) Sanyasi; not a caste, but a class of Sivaite religious mendicants who reject caste; 187 in number. (29) Chásá Dhopá; cultivators; 28 in number. (30) Hákár; cultivators; 207 in number. (31) Tántí; weavers; 12,800 in number. (32) Basia; cultivators; 210 in number. (33) Ganesh; weavers; most numerous in the west of the District; 3281 in number. (34) Koeri; cultivators; 211 in number. (35) Kurmi; cultivators; 400 in number. (36) Sonár or Swarnákar; goldsmiths and jewellers; 612 in number. (37) Subarnabanik; merchants, bankers, and dealers in gold and silver; 888 in number. (18) Sutradhár or Chhutár; carpenters; 678 in number. (39) Rájmistri; brick-mason: 1 in number.

Low Castes.—The following thirty are low castes, and are despised:—(40) Pálí; an offshoot of the Koch tribe, and by far the most numerous of the Hindu castes in Dinájpur District. As with many other tribes and castes of aboriginal descent, they claim to be Kshattriyas, and assert that their appellation of Pálí (Bengalí, paláyan, to flee) is derived from their ancestors having fled from the wrath of Purásurám, the Bráhman warrior incarnation of Vishnu, in his war of extermination against the Kshattriyas. A Pálí, when asked as to his caste, will probably state that he is a Rájbansí—literally,

of the royal kindred. Their chief occupation is agriculture. The Census Report quotes a communication from the Assistant Magistrate of Dinajpur regarding these people, as follows:- 'The Koch and Pális or Páliyás, as they are indifferently called, are a people peculiar to this part of the country, and are distinguished from all other Bengalis by their broad faces, flat noses, and projecting cheekbones, as also by their appearance and different style of dress. They profess to be Hindus; but while they follow the Hindu religion in the main, they also practise some ceremonies borrowed from Musalmans and others, which are apparently remnants of an older superstition. . . . The Palls are subdivided into three classes. the Sádhu, Bábu, and Desi Pális. The Bábu or Byabahárí Pális, as they are also called, eat pigs and fowls and drink spirits; the Desí Pális eat shell-fish. Both the Sádhu and Bábu Pális use cows in ploughing. The Sádhu Pálís for the most part follow the tenets of Chaitanya, the Vishnuvite reformer of the sixteenth century. The Koch are the palanquin-bearers of the District, and seem to be about on an equality with the Pális in respect of caste. They drink spirits and eat fowls. No Brahman will take water from either a Pálí or a Koch.' The Kochs, Pálís, and Rájbansís may be taken as one and the same people; and indeed, in the Census, the two latter are given as offshoots of the former. The District Census Report of 1872 returns the number of these people as follow:-Koch, 30,605; Páli, 326,971; and Rájbansi, 86,351. (41) Jogí; weavers; 7741 in number. (42) Kapálí; cotton spinners and weavers; 86 in number. (43) Dhuniyá; weavers; 61 in number. (44) Kálu; oil-pressers and sellers; 1684 in number. (45) Surf or Sunri; wine sellers and distillers by caste occupation; but many of them have now abandoned their hereditary employment, and have taken to rice-dealing and to general trade; 6685 in number. (46) Dhanuk: domestic servants, cultivators, and labourers: 134 in number. (47) Káhár; an up-country caste from Behar, principally employed as palanquin-bearers and as domestic servants; 758 in number. (48) Dhobá; washermen; 2177 in number. (49) Behárá; palanquin-bearers and domestic servants; 5776 in number. (50) Laheri: lac-workers; 88 in number. (51) Beldar; labourers; 348 in number. (52) Chunári; lime-burners; 201 in number. (53) Matiyal; cultivator and labourer, principally employed in digging and earth-work; I in number. (54) Kandári; sellers of fish and vegetables; 65 in number. (55) Khyen; labourers and domestic servants; 2714 in number. (56) Chandál; cultivators, fishermen, and labourers; 7371 in number. (57) Baití; mat-makers and musicians; 600 in number. (58) Jáliá; fishermen and boatmen; 10,296 in number. (59) Málá; fishermen and boatmen; 675 in number. (60) Mánjhí; not a separate caste, but a class of men who act as boat-steerers; 528 in number. (61) Gonrhi; fishermen who hunt with the harpoon; 27 in number. (62) Pod; fishermen and boatmen; 24 in number. (63) Tior; fishermen and boatmen; 17,364 in number. (64) Patní; ferrymen; 1906 in number. (65) Muriyárí; fishermen and boatmen; 38 in number. (66) Suráhiyá; fishermen and boatmen; 156 in number. (67) Machhuá; fishermen; 179 in number. (68) Bathuá; fishermen and boatmen; 13 in number. (69) Mirásí; musicians and wandering beggars; 19 in number.

SEMI-ABORIGINAL CASTES.—The following are all semi-aboriginal castes, or rather aboriginal tribes which have crept within the pale of Hinduism. They are utterly despised by all Hindus of higher social rank than themselves :- (70) Bágdí; cultivators, labourers, and fishermen; 152 in number. (71) Báheliá; labourers and cultivators; 44 in number. (72) Bauri; labourers and cultivators, and also sellers of sweetmeats; 384 in number. The Collector states that the Bauris of Dinaipur hold a position superior to that of the semiaboriginal Bauris of Chhota Nagpur, and he doubts whether they are the same people. (73) Buna; labourers; 3139 in number. (74) Bind; labourers; 117 in number. (75) Cháin; labourers and cultivators; 337 in number. (76) Chámár and Muchí; two distinct castes following the same occupation, that of skinners, leather-dealers, and shoemakers, but returned as one in the Census Report; 3119 in number. (77) Kuril; leather-dealers, etc.; returned in the Census as an offshoot of the Chamar caste; 900 in number. (78) Dom; mat-makers, fishermen, and village watchmen; 1242 in number. (79) Turi; returned in the Census as an offshoot of the Dom caste; 66 in number. (80) Dosádh; labourers, fishermen, and mat-makers; 948 in number. (81) Pási; toddy-sellers; 94 in number. (82) Mahili; labourers; 3 in number. (83) Mal; snake-charmers; 1446 in number. (84) Musahar; labourers; 114 in number. (85) Karangá; labourers; 253 in number. (86) Bediyá; a wandering, gipsy-like tribe, half-Hindus half-Muhammadans, who live by the sale of petty trinkets, drum-beating, cattle-gelding, juggling, and fortunetelling, and also by theft when opportunity offers; the women are

frequently employed as midwives. The Census returns the number of Bediyás in Dinájpur at 1704. Several small villages of Bediyás are situated in the south of the District; but at the time of the Nekmard fair they throng together in gangs as professional thieves, and are about the worst class met with at the gathering. (87) Hárí; swineherds and sweepers; 35,325 in number. (88) Mihtár; sweepers; 1336 in number. (89) Bhuimálí; sweepers; returned in the Census as an offshoot of the Mihtár caste; 792 in number.

ABORIGINAL TRIBES.—The Census Report returns the following eight as aboriginal tribes; many of their members, however, have now embraced some form of Hinduism:—(1) Kol; 116 in number.

(2) Santál; 1039 in number. (3) Dhángar; 2907 in number. (4) Nat; 20 in number. (5) Bakko; 20 in number. (6) Telengá; 94 in number. (7) Paháriyá; 110 in number. (8) Bhar; 125 in number.

RELIGIOUS DIVISION OF THE PROPLE.—The great bulk of the population are Muhammadans and Hindus, the remainder consisting of a very few Brahma Samai followers, Jains, Buddhists, Christians, and a handful of aboriginal tribes still professing their primitive forms of faith. The Census Report of 1872 returns the population of the different religions as under:-Muhammadansmales 410,835, and females 382,380; total 793,215, or 52.8 per cent. of the District population. Proportion of males in total Musalmans, 51.8 per cent. The mass of the Muhammadan population are the descendants of converts from Hinduism. The religion of Islam has now ceased to make any further progress in the District. Wahábis and Faráizis are known to exist among the Muhammadan population, but the Collector reports that they are not actively fanatical. The Hindus (as loosely grouped together for religious purposes) consist of 362,067 males, and 340,168 females; total 702,235, or 46'8 per cent of the District population. Proportion of males in total Hindus, 51.6 per cent. Most of the wealthy traders and the principal landholders are Hindus; and as a rule. the Collector is of opinion that throughout the agricultural population the Hindus occupy a somewhat higher social position than the Muhammadans. The members of the Brahma Samaj, or reformed theistic sect of Hindus, are included in the Census Report with the general Hindu population; but the Collector in 1870 reported that they numbered about 25. At that time the Samaj had only been in existence for three or four years. Its members did not belong to

Dinájpur, but came mostly from Dacca and the eastern Districts, and were employed in the Educational Department, or in the upper subordinate ranks of the police. The Jains are represented by about a dozen banking families in the station of Dinájpur, together with their servants and retainers. The Buddhist community consists of 151 males and 144 females; total 205. They are only met with in the Porshá police circle (tháná). In 1870 there were three small communities of native Christians in Dinappur District. Two were located in the villages of Sádá Mahal and Baburhát on the Tángan river, the members belonging to the lower class of agriculturists. The third was at Dinájpur town, and comprised among its members one wealthy family and several domestic servants in comfortable circumstances. In 1872 the Census Report returned the Christian population of Dinappur as follows -Males 138, and females 133; total 271. Deducting 21 as the number of Europeans, there remains a balance of 250 as representing the native Christian population of Dinájpur. The remainder of the population are not separately classified in the Census Report according to religion, but are returned under one heading as 'others.' They consist almost entirely of immigrant hill tribes and races who still adhere to their primitive aboriginal faiths. The District Census Report returned their numbers in 1872 as follows: -- Males 3240, and females 2668, total 5908, or '4 per cent. of the District population. Proportion of males in total 'other' population, 54.8 per cent

DISTRIBUTION OF THE PROPERTY INTO TOWN AND COUNTRY .-Dinajpur is a purely agricultural District; and no tendency is perceptible on the part of the people to collect themselves together into towns. Indeed, the Census Report of 1872 returns only a single town as containing upwards of five thousand souls, namely, Dinájpur, the Headquarters of the District; population, 13,042 The smaller towns or large villages are of importance only as marts or outlets for the agricultural produce of the District. They are almost invariably situated on the river banks, and consist of a number of warehouses, nearly all constructed of bamboo and matting, in which the country produce, collected from the village markets of the interior, and conveyed to the rivers in bullock-carts or on pack oxen, is stored previous to being exported by water. The importance of a town depends upon the number of golds or warehouses it contains. The merchants or warehouse-keepers are generally persons belonging to neighbouring Districts, such as

Maldah, Rájsháhí, Murshidábád, and Pábná. A list of the principal of these river-side trading towns is given on a previous page of this Statistical Account.

The District Census Compilation thus classifies the villages and towns:—There are 4927 small villages containing less than two hundred inhabitants; 1585 with from two hundred to five hundred; 418 with from five hundred to a thousand; 135 small towns with from one thousand to two thousand; 35 towns with from two thousand to three thousand; 6 with from three thousand to four thousand; 1 with from four thousand to five thousand; and 1 with from ten thousand to fifteen thousand inhabitants: total, 7108 villages.

DINAJPUR, the principal town and Administrative Headquarters of the District, is situated on the east bank of the Purnabhábá, just below the point of its confluence with the Dhapa river, in 25° 38' o" north latitude and 88° 40' 46" east longitude. This town seems to have declined in importance of late years. In 1808 it was estimated to contain 5000 houses; but the Census of 1872 showed only 3031 houses. The details of the population of the town are as follow: -- Muhammadans -- males 3728, and females 3288; total, 7016. Hindus - males 3861, and females 1986; total 5847. Christians-males 47, and females 52; total 99. 'Others'-males 64, and females 16; total 80. Total of all denominations-males 7700, and females 5342; grand total 13,042. The great disparity in the proportion of the sexes in the town population arises from the fact that many of the shopkeepers and traders have houses in the country, where they leave their wives and children. Dinajpur is the only municipality in the District. In 1869-70 the municipal income amounted to £885. and the expenditure to the same amount. For 1871 the gross municipal revenue of the town is returned at £,627, 4s. od., and the expenditure at £,758, 10s. od.; average rate of municipal tixation, 7 and 8 pie or 111d. per head of the population. The municipality supports a police force, which in 1872 consisted of 2 native officers and 40 constables, maintained at a total cost of £334, 6s. od. The remainder of the municipal income is expended chiefly on conservancy purposes.

VILLAGE OFFICIALS.—The only representatives of the ancient indigenous village corporations at present existing in Dinájpur District appear to be the patwári or village accountant, and the

mandal or village head-man, but their powers and duties have become greatly circumscribed under a more regular system of administration. They still retain, however, considerable vitality, and have much influence among the villagers. The extent to which the co-operation of these officials simplified the taking of the Census in Dinájpur has been described on a previous page. The following paragraphs regarding the position and duties of patwaris and mandals in this District are taken almost verbatim from a report of the Collector, embodied in a volume of Papers regarding the Village Indigenous Agency employed in taking the Bengal Census of 1872.

'The management of samindaris in the interior is much in the hands of these officials; and without their co-operation a samindar finds a difficulty in collecting his rent. These officers form a remnant of the system for the collection of the revenue and internal management of the country, which existed prior to the accession of the English to the government. At the present day, their duties have become merged and lost in newer forms of administration; their powers have decayed, and their influence has diminished. Under Muhammadan rule, the patwari occupied an important position among the subordinate agents employed by Government for collecting the land rent. The patwari was the village accountant, to whom, on the one hand, the cultivators looked for the proper record of their payments in satisfaction of the zamindar's demand, and, on the other hand, the samindár looked for the proper realization of his dues. The mandal or head-man had also an interest in promoting and extending cultivation. Both these classes of persons were paid in former times either by fixed money salaries, or by being allowed to hold their lands at a reduced rental,—the former method being the usual custom in this District. The patwaris had power and authority only as civil officers; the mandals exercised criminal powers as well: they fined persons for petty thefts and other minor offences, and generally settled the disputes of the community over which they presided. In Dinájpur District, where there is still plenty of waste land available for cultivation, and where the powers of the zamindárs have not become so centralized as elsewhere, traces of the old system still exist.

'At the present day, the patwaris are appointed by the samindars, and their duties are to keep the accounts, each of his own village. The patwari is not always a resident of the village; but it frequently happens that the same person is patwari as well as mandal.

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The patwari is generally paid by a percentage on the collections: and being now simply the samindar's agent, he exercises no authority except what he derives from virtue of that office. The villagers have no voice in his election. But the mandal, who is to be found in every village, large or small, is the representative of a particular community, and also a resident in the village of which he is the representative. He is appointed by the villagers, subject to the confirmation of the zamindár, who, however, rarely refuses to confirm a person chosen by the popular voice. The appointment is neither hereditary nor permanent, the villagers having the right to nominate another person to the office, if not satisfied with the conduct of the existing incumbent. The mandal is remunerated by a small yearly money payment from the zamindár, and has also the privilege of holding his land at a fixed rent, and exempt from the payment of any cess to the zamindar. In return for this, it is his duty to assist the patwari in collecting the rent, to encourage the villagers to bring waste lands into cultivation, and to give information to the police of any crimes or suspicious deaths in the village. villagers are not bound to pay him anything; but, as a token of respect for his position, they often make him small presents of money or produce. Disputes regarding land are referred to the mandal, who decides the matter himself; but in all other cases he generally calls in the aid of a panchayat or arbitration court, composed of those villagers who bear, in the general estimation of the community, the highest character for respectability and trustworthiness. The cases usually brought before this tribunal are those relating to caste disputes, or involving matters of family honour. When the case has been heard and decided in the presence of the assembled villagers, if either party is fined, the mandal realizes the amount, and expends it in providing a feast for the principal villagers. With respect to Dinájpur, it is the opinion of the Collector that the authority which the mandals and the village panchayats exercise has kept the criminal courts free from a multitude of petty cases which encumber the courts of other Districts; and he trusts that it may be long before the powers of these officials are curtailed. In his belief, a pancháyat is more likely to become acquainted with the real facts of a case, and to do substantial justice, than any criminal court.'

FAIRS AND RELIGIOUS GATHERINGS.—Numerous annual fairs and religious gatherings are held in Dinájpur, of which the follow-

ing are the most important:—(1) The Nekmard fair takes its name from a Muhammadan pir or saint who is buried there, and whose tomb is frequented by large numbers of pilgrims. The fair is held in the village of Bhawanipur, pargana Salbari, about six miles north of Ránísankáil police station, and one mile west of the river Kulik. The tomb of the saint is in a mat hut in the centre of a mango grove. The fair is opened on the first day of the Bengali year, corresponding to the 10th or 11th April. It lasts for six or seven days, and is frequented by about a hundred thousand persons from all parts of the country. It is principally a cattle fair, but all varieties of articles are brought there for sale. Major Sherwill, the Revenue Surveyor, gives the following description of the business carried on :- Oxen come principally from Purniah and surrounding Districts, and are bought up by agents from Maimansinh, Sylhet, and other places. Ponies, mostly from the Bhutan hills, are brought down by the Bhutiás. The horses are Cabuls, or country-bred animals from Arrah and the neighbouring Districts of Behar. Elephants are brought from the Dárjíling tarái and from Assam, and are purchased by rich zamindárs. A few camels also arrive, laden with goods from the north-west; after the packs have been disposed of, the animals are generally sold to wealthy Muhammadans, who eat them on occasions of great feasting. People from all parts of Northern India frequent the fair. Mughuls and Afghans bring dried fruits, embroidered saddlery, daggers, swords, looking glasses, etc. Sikhs may be seen manufacturing combs out of ivory and sandal-wood. The hill tribes bring down blankets, woollen cloths, walnuts, musk, ponies, and yak tails. The Nepális sell kukris (heavy bill-hooks, the national weapon of the Gurkhás) and chirclá leaf. Quantities of real and imitation coral beads are exposed for sale by the bankers of Dinajpur. Besides the above, there are English piece goods, brass pots of all sorts and sizes, hookahs, etc. A limited supply of grain is also offered for sale, but probably not more than is required for actual consumption.' (2) The Alawarkháwá fair is held at the village of the same name, in parganá Sálbárí, on the occasion of a Hindu religious festival called Ráspuznimá, in the month of Kartik (October-November) of each year. The fair continues for eight days, and is frequented by about forty thousand persons. (3) The Dhaldighi fair is held at the village of the same name, near the police station of Gangárámpur. It commences on the 1st day of Phálgun, and continues for eight days, (corresponding to the latter half of February); attendance about twenty thousand. (4) The Sontápur fair commences on the 13th Baisákh, and also lasts for eight days (corresponding to the last week of April); attendance about twenty thousand.

MATERIAL CONDITION OF THE PEOPLE.—Almost the whole population live by agriculture; and even among the shopkeepers and artisan classes, nearly every household supplement their ordinary means of livelihood by cultivating a small patch of land, either by their own hands, or, if sufficiently well off, through others, who receive a share of the crop in return for their labour. Generally speaking, a cultivator's entire holding is under rice, with the exception of a small patch around the homestead, on which he raises crops of vegetables. The material condition of the people of Dinájpur District is said to be, as a rule, superior to that of the peasantry of the more advanced Districts of the Gangetic delta. The people here are much more simple in their mode of living than those in the Districts to the south. As a rule, every husbandman (chásá) has two wives, and many of them three or four. The husband does all the work of cultivation, while the wives stay at home and weave clothing and sackcloth, the surplus of which, after providing for home consumption, is disposed of at the nearest hat or market.

DWELLINGS.—The dwelling-houses of cultivators are generally built of straw and matting, as in the southern Districts. But in the khidr tracts (stiff clay lands) mud huts are very common, which are rarely met with in the Gangetic Districts. The framework of these huts is of bamboo or timber, the walls being composed of khiár, a peculiarly tenacious description of clay, which dries to a hardness about half that of an ordinary brick. The dwellings of a well-to-do shopkeeper and of an average husbandman are of the same description, and about the same size. The dwelling for a family of either of these classes generally consists of four apartments, namely, a principal sleeping-room (griha ghar), a cooking-room (páker ghar), a barn or storehouse (golá ghar), and a sitting-room (khánkhá). The first-named room is furnished with a bamboo bedstead, and a large chest for clothing, household utensils, jewellery, etc., the lid of which also serves as a sleeping-place at night. The house of the village mandal or head-man is, as might be expected, usually by far the best house in the village. Some mandals' houses, indeed, are built of brick, and boast the addition of a tank, plantain and vegetable gardens, etc.

CLOTHING.—Of late years there has been a considerable influx of higher-caste natives from other Districts, who came here in the service of the samindars or for mercantile purposes, and have settled down. With the exception of these, and a few persons living in Dinajpur town and at the large river-side produce depots. the dress of all classes in Dinajpur District is the same. At home. the clothing of a man consists simply of a nangtá, a small waist-cloth, barely sufficient for purposes of decency; when abroad, he wears a dhuti or cotton girdle, falling over the thighs, and a gameha or small cotton shawl, worn over the shoulders. Formerly the ordinary dress of a woman was a fotá, and a piece of sackcloth. The fotá is a piece of coarse country-made cloth, about a yard and three-quarters in length by about a yard in breadth. It is worn wound round the body under the arms and across the bosom, and descends to the knee. leaving the head, arms, and feet bare. The practice of wearing the khánrí, a cloth fastened round the waist, and the end thrown over the head and upper part of the body, as worn by the women of the southern Districts, is gaining ground among Muhammadan females, but very slowly.

FOOD.—The ordinary articles of food eaten by all classes are the same, with the exception that a well-to-do shopkeeper or prosperous cultivator has a greater variety at a single meal than a poor peasant or labourer. The staple article of food, of course, is rice. This is eaten with fish, milk, curds, pulse (dál), potatoes, kumrá or pumpkin, kadhu or bottle gourd, onions, and other vegetables. The leaves of the jute plant are also commonly used as a vegetable. The following is an estimate of the monthly living expenses of a middlingsized household of the well-to-do shopkeeper class, consisting of a man, two wives, and four children:-Rice, 3 maunds (21 hundredweights), value Rs. 4. 8. 0 or 9s.; dál or pulse, 15 ser (30 lbs.), Rs. 1. 4. 0 or 28. 6d.; sugar, 2 ser (4 lbs.), 3 ánnás or 41d.; vegetables and chilies, R. 1 or 25.; fish, R. 1 or 25.; oil, R. 1 or 25.; salt, 8 ánnás or 1s.; feed of milch cow, 8 ánnás or 1s.; clothing, R. 1 or 2s.: total, Rs. 10. 15. 0 or £1, 18. 101d. per month. The same-sized family of an ordinarily prosperous husbandman would require all the articles mentioned above; which, however, would cost but little in actual money. Rice, pulses, mustard-seed for oil, sugar-cane, and vegetables, he cultivates in his own fields; the fish he requires is caught by himself or his family in a neighbouring marsh or tank; his cattle graze on his own land, and cost him nothing for food; and nearly all the clothing required by the family is woven by the women of his household.

AGRICULTURAL.—The great crop of Dinájpur District is rice. The Collector reports that the following twenty-four varieties are sown in marshy land in June or July, afterwards transplanted, and finally reaped in November or December. They constitute the great aman or winter rice harvest of the year :-(1) Indra sáil; (2) káti sáil; (3) chandan chur; (4) sindur katuá; (5) chini dumbar; (6) surjyá ujál; (7) kának chur; (8) saliná; (9) baghan bichi; (10) ulkábar; (11) sádá saliná; (12) katar bhog; (13) karam; (14) dáúd khání; (15) bánjhul; (16) kálá dhání; (17) kálá niná; (18) buná; (19) chingá; (20) gajal suryá; (21) kandi banst; (22) mal sirá; (23) bet; and (24) kásár. The two last-named varieties may be either transplanted or not; but if not transplanted, they must be sown on land sufficiently moist to have water at their roots during the whole of the rainy season. The following eight varieties comprise the dus or autumn rice crop. They are sown broadcast in May on lands which are dry at the time of sowing, but which must be moist when the plant gets into ear and during the time when the grain is being formed. The crop is reaped in August or September:—(1) Abar sáil; (2) bará saní; (3) duní; (4) jamá; (5) dudh kalam; (6) niniá; (7) chhota sani; (8) dus. Boro or spring rice is sown in February and reaped in May. No improvement seems to have taken place in the quality of the rice grown in Dinajpur; but the Collector reports that a great deal of marsh land, formerly waste, has been brought under rice cultivation within the last twenty-five years. The soil appears to have decreased in productive power by over cropping; and it is said that the land now produces less by one-fifth than what it did twenty-five years ago. The following are the principal preparations of rice, and their current price as reported to me by the Collector in 1870:—Bhat; boiled rice; not sold. Muri; paddy, first soaked, then husked, and afterwards parched; sold at from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 dnnds a ser, or from $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. to $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. per lb. Khái; paddy parched and fried in hot sand till the grains swell and burst their husks; sold at from 1 to 11 annds a ser, or from 2d. to 11d. per lb. Chira; paddy boiled, then fried in the husk, and afterwards husked; sold at from 1 to 11 annás a ser, or from 1d. to 1d. per lb. Pachwai; rice beer; sold at from 1 to 11 annas a ser liquid measure, or about 2d. a quart bottle.

Other Cereal Crops.—Oats (jai) and barley (jab) are cul-

tivated only to a very small extent, the soil not being suitable for their production; sown in October or November, and reaped in March or April; not transplanted. Maize or Indian corn (bhutta or makhai); sown in moist but not too wet land in April, and cut in July or August; not transplanted. Kaun, a species of millet, is sown on moist but not marshy land in March or April, and cut in June or July; not transplanted.

OIL-SEEDS.—Rape-seed (sarishi); sown on dry land in August or September, and cut in January or February. Mustard-seed (rai); sown on dry land in August or September, and cut in January or February. Til seed; sown in moist but not marshy land in July or August, and cut in November.

GREEN CROPS.—Thikri kaldi; sown in moist but not too wet land in August, and cut in November. Mug; sown on moist but not marshy land in August, and cut in November. Peas (malar); sown in moist land in September, and gathered in March. Khesdri and gram (bût); grown in the same description of soil, and sown and gathered at the same season as peas. Gram is only cultivated in the western portion of the District. Musuri; sown in dry land in August, and cut in April. Arhar; sown in dry land in May or June, and cut in February or March. Rorá; sown on dry land in August, and cut in March.

FIBRES.—Jute (koshtá pát); sown in moist land in May or June, and cut in September. China or rhea grass (kankhurá); sown on dry, shady, and well-manured land. Cultivated in small quantities only by fishermen, who use it for making nets. Cotton.—'The cultivation of cotton in Dinájpur,' states the Revenue Surveyor, 'is almost extinct. In former years it was grown to some extent, when the Government had an agency at Dam-damá, in parganá Khangor, for the purchase of cotton piece-goods. The cultivation might be extended; but Dinájpur can never become a large cotton-producing District, owing to the nature of the soil.'

SUGAR-CANE (ikshu); sown in dry land in April or May. The cane which is reserved for eating is cut when young and tender, in December, while that intended for sugar-making is not cut till the following February or March. Sugar cane cultivation appears to have declined in Dinájpur District; and on this subject I extract the following remarks from the Revenue Surveyor's Report:—'In former years the cultivation of the sugar-cane was carried to a much greater extent than it is now in Dinájpur. Various reasons are

assigned for its decline. Amongst others, it is asserted that the land has become less favourable to its growth since the waters of the old Tista have left this part of the country. However this may be, the deterioration of the cane is unquestionable. Mr. G. R. Payter has kindly furnished me with the following account of the introduction of the Otaheitean and Bourbon canes into the southern portion of the District, and their subsequent decay:-"The late Mr. J. W. Payter introduced the Otaheitean and Bourbon varieties of cane into the Saguná estates about the year 1840. At first the people were unwilling to accept them, on account of the novelty. Some of the wisest, however, tried the cultivation, and when its superiority in yield and quality became known, it was eagerly sought after. The yield per bighá was fully double that of the indigenous plant, and the gur made from it was so superior in quality as to command an enhanced price in the market. In short, those who cultivated it in any quantity became comparatively rich. The species introduced consisted of several varieties of the white and purple Bourbon cane; but in the course of a few years it all became of a uniform purple colour, caused, I suppose, by some peculiarity of soil. In the season 1857-58 the cane manifested symptoms of decay, and ultimately it all rotted in the fields. 1858 it has entirely disappeared, so that at the present time (1861) not a single cane of these varieties is to be found; and the people have reverted to the cultivation of the native cane, which, though of a fair kind, is not to be compared to the Bourbon. The failure has been a source of much regret and pecuniary loss to the cultivators. I am unable to suggest any reason for its decay, which in this District and in Rangpur has become complete. In the latter District, the Bourbon cane was also much grown. The disease first showed itself in Rangpur two or three years previous to its appearance in Dinájpur; in fact, the progress of the disease was from north to south, the cane in pargand Gildbarl dying off the year previous to the disease manifesting itself in Saguná, fifteen or twenty miles It may have been worn out by high cultivation, or farther south. the soil and climate combined may have caused it to deteriorate and decay." The land selected for the cultivation of sugar-cane is always raised above the level of inundation, either naturally, or by excavating ditches all round it, and using the excavated earth for this purpose. The cane is planted in straight furrows. The juice is extracted in a circular mill, working on the principle of a pestle and mortar.

One mill is often owned by several different parties, who may have cultivated the cane in the same or adjoining villages, and who club together, share the expenses, and assist with men and bullocks in the operations of pressing the cane and boiling the juice, in proportion to the quantity of cane grown by each party.'

BETEL LEAF (pan); sown from cuttings in moist land about May, the leaves being fit for plucking when the plant is a year old. Regarding this crop the Revenue Surveyor states: 'The cultivation of pan in Dinajpur District is a little in excess of the local wants; the surplus is principally sold in the town of Dinaipur. The average size of a pán boroj or garden is about eighteen káthás, or nine-tenths of a bigha; but the dimensions vary considerably. A boroj, generally speaking, consists of an oblong enclosure of bamboo framework covered with reeds and grass, and roofed over with the same materials, sufficiently high as to admit a man standing. The plants are neatly arranged in parallel rows about two feet apart, and are made to trail over an upright framework of split bamboos and reeds. The soil best adapted to the growth of the pan is of a stiff yellow kind. The ground requires to be manured annually with There are fifty-two pickings every year, or one a week; a certain number of rows are picked daily, by which a continual supply of fresh leaves is kept up. The annual expense of maintaining a pán garden of the above size, exclusive of the labour performed by the proprietor and the members of his family, is from Rs. 20 to Rs. 30 (£2 to £3). The average price of 100 leaves at the village market is one anná (11d.) in the rainy months, and from two to four annas (3d. to 6d.) at other seasons of the year.'

TOBACCO is cultivated in all parts of the District in sufficient quantities to meet the local demand. It is mostly grown in small patches of rich, highly-manured land on the low banks of rivers, or in the immediate vicinity of the village, being sown in July, transplanted in November, and the leaves plucked in April. The Revenue Surveyor returns the expense of cultivation at about Rs. 5 or Rs. 5. 8. o a bighá, or from £1, 10s. od. to £1, 13s.od. an acre. The produce of an average crop is about five maunds of leaf per bigha, or eleven hundredweights per acre, the dried leaf being worth from Rs. 4 to Rs. 7 per maund, or from 10s. 11d. to 19s. 1d. per hundredweight. The leaf is retailed in all the village markets for about 21 or 3 annds a ser, or from 15d. to 21d. per lb.

MISCELLANEOUS CROPS.—Potato (dlu); sown in dry lands in

September, and dug up in March. Sweet potato (sakarkand dlu); sown in dry lands in September, and dug up in March. Capsicum (lanká marich); sown in dry lands in September; transplanted and gathered in March or April. Onion (piyáj); two varieties are grown,—one, which is transplanted, is sown in March or April, and gathered in June or July; the other, which is not transplanted, is sown in September or October, and gathered in February or March. Both varieties are grown on dry lands. Garlic (rasun); sown in dry lands in September or October, and gathered in February or March. Ginger (adá); sown in dry lands in September or October, and gathered in March or April. Turmeric (haldi); sown in dry lands in September or October, and gathered in March or April.

AREA, OUT-TURN OF CROPS, ETC.—The present area of Dinájpur District, after recent transfers, is returned by the Boundary Commissioner at 4095'14 square miles, or 2,620,889 acres. In 1870 the Collector estimated that 2,032,287 acres were actually under cultivation, namely, 1,016,148 acres under rice, 201,801 acres under jute, and 841,338 acres under other crops. A good average yield from land paying a rent of Rs. 1. 8. o per bighd, or 9s. an acre, is stated by the Collector to be from 8 to 10 maunds of paddy per bighá, valued at from Rs. 5 to Rs. 7, equal to from 17% to 22 hundredweights per acre, worth from £1, 10s. od. to £2, 2s. od. Exceptionally good land, which pays as high as Rs. 3 per bighá, or 18s. an acre, should yield 16 or 17 maunds of paddy per bighd, worth from Rs. 10 to Rs. 12, equal to from 35 to 37 hundredweights per acre, worth from £3 to £3, 12s. od. an acre. Upon some lands a second crop of pulses or oil-seeds is grown, the average value of the produce being from Rs. 5 to Rs. 7 per bighá, or from £1, 10s. od. to £2, 28. od. per acre. Khiár land, which is let at rents varying from 2 ánnás to Rs. 2 per bighá, or from 9d. to 12s. an acre, produces only one rice crop in the year; but pall land, renting at from R. I to Rs. 3. 8. o per bighá, or from 6s. to £1, 1s. od. per acre, produces the dus or autumn rice, together with a cold-weather crop of pulses or oil-seeds. It is impossible to estimate the value of these coldweather crops, owing to their variety and different prices. Perhaps an average of Rs. 5 to Rs. 7 a bighá (£1, 10s. od. to £2, 2s. od. an acre) might be accepted as the fair value of their out-turn. The Collector considers that a good return from land yielding both crops, and paying a rental of Rs. 1. 8. o a bighá, or 9s. an acre, would be 91 to 12 maunds of produce per bighd, of the value of from Rs. 9 to Rs. 13, equal to from 20 to 26 hundredweights per acre, of the value of from £2, 14s. od. to £3, 18s. od.; and from land at Rs. 3 per bighd, or 18s. an acre, 18 to 20 maunds of produce per bighd, valued at from Rs. 15 to Rs. 19, equal to from 39 to 44 hundredweights per acre, valued at from £4, 10s. od. to £5, 14s. od. These estimates are based upon the standard bighd of 14,400 square feet.

Position of the Cultivators.—A farm of five 'ploughs,' or about twenty-five acres in extent, is considered a large holding for a peasant; but some of them cultivate as much as twelve 'ploughs,' or sixty acres. Three 'ploughs,' or fifteen acres, is considered a comfortable holding; and indeed a cultivator could maintain a small family from a single 'plough' or five acres of land, although he would not be so well off as a respectable retail shopkeeper. As a class, the husbandmen are generally in debt. The land is chiefly held by tenants-at-will; the proportion of cultivators with occupancy rights in the soil does not, in the opinion of the Collector, exceed one in every five of the general body of cultivators. There are very few husbandmen, indeed, who hold their lands under a right of occupancy, and who are at the same time exempt from enhancement of rent. No class of small proprietors exists in Dinájpur District who own, occupy, and cultivate their hereditary lands themselves, without either a zamindár or superior landlord of any sort above them, or a sub-tenant or labourer of any sort below them.

DOMESTIC ANIMALS.—Buffaloes and oxen are the only animals made use of in agriculture. The animals reared or kept for purposes of trade or as food are ponies, oxen, sheep, goats, pigs, geese, ducks, fowls, and pigeons. The Collector reports the price of a fairly good milch cow to be from Rs. 20 to Rs. 25 (£2 to £2, 10s. od.); of a pair of small plough oxen, from Rs. 12 to Rs. 16 (£1, 4s. od. to £1, 12s. od.); of a pair of cart oxen, from Rs. 80 to Rs. 150 (£8 to £15); of a score of wether sheep, from Rs. 40 to Rs. 45 (£4 to £4, 10s. od.); of a score of ewe sheep, from Rs. 15 to Rs. 25 (£1, 10s. od. to £2, 10s. od.); of a score of kids six months old, from Rs. 15 to Rs. 16 (£1, 10s. od. to £1, 12s. od.); and of a score of full-grown pigs, from Rs. 80 to Rs. 160 (£8 to £16). The Revenue Surveyor in his report states: 'Horned cattle are very plentiful, but unusually small and feeble. Whether the cattle were originally of the present diminutive type

is not clear; but they bear the impress of great deterioration, more especially in the southern part of the District. The horns of these pigmy creatures are so ill-developed, that they have the least possible resemblance to horns, and consist of an unnatural-looking excrescence, thicker at the extremities than at the base, and growing in any direction but the natural one. Pasturage is plentiful, but deficient in nourishment. Milk is everywhere very scarce. The villagers complain that the cows give less milk now than formerly. The consequence is that the calves are deprived of the little nourishment their mothers are able to supply; and the apathetic cultivator looks placidly on at the deterioration of his sickly cattle, and attempts nothing to improve the breed. standing that many thousand head of cattle have been destroyed by murrain, and the havoc committed among them by tigers, they are very abundant. In the northern parts of the District the cattle are stronger, and in the adjoining District of Purniah a very superior breed is obtained. Goats are very plentiful, but in the south of the District are exceedingly small.'

AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS.—'The agricultural implements used by the peasantry are of the most primitive description. The plough is a solid piece of wood, tipped sometimes with a point of iron, and fixed to a pole or bamboo, to which are yoked a couple of small lean oxen. No kind of harness is necessary to yoke them to the plough, which is very light, and is generally left on the ground after the day's work; if required to be moved, it is easily carried away on the ploughman's shoulders. In the north of the District, where the soil is light and free, the iron tip to the plough is dispensed with.' The following is a list of the various implements used in ordinary agriculture:—(1) Nángal, or plough; (2) joyál, or yoke; (3) lohúr phál, iron ploughshare; (4) mái, a harrow and clod-crusher, constructed of bamboo in the form of a ladder, and dragged by oxen, the driver standing upon the implement to give it weight; (5) bidá, a scarifier, made of a bamboo framework with iron teeth, used to thin the plants when they are newly sprung up; (6) kodáli, or hoe; (7) káste or káchi, reapinghook; (8) pásan, weeding-hook; (9) kurálí, axe; (10) dáo, billhook; (11) kasawá, small bill-hook; (12) khunti, iron-shod stick for making holes. For the tillage of a single 'plough' of land. little is required beyond a plough, a pair of oxen, and a sickle, with perhaps one or two of the implements mentioned above; the total value of the plough, cattle, and implements being about Rs. 20 or \pounds_2 .

WAGES.—In 1870 the current rate of wages in Dinájpur District was returned by the Collector as follows:—Coolies and agricultural labourers received Rs. 2 (4s.) per month with food, or Rs. 4. 8. 0 (9s.) per month without food; smiths earned from Rs. 10 to Rs. 15 (£1 to £1, 10s. od.) per month; bricklayers and carpenters from Rs. 6 to Rs. 8 (12s. to 16s.) per month. No record exists showing the ordinary rate of wages for years prior to 1870.

PRICES.—The Collector returns the ordinary price of food grains and other produce, in 1870, as under:—Best cleaned rice, Rs. 1. 7. 0 per maund, or 3s. 11d. a hundredweight; common rice, R. 1 per maund, or 2s. 9d. a hundredweight; best unhusked rice, R. 1 per maund, or 2s. 9d. a hundredweight; common unhusked rice, 9 únnás a maund, or 1s. 6d. a hundredweight; unhusked barley, Rs. 2. 13. 0 a maund, or 7s. 8d. a hundredweight; barley flour (chhatu), Rs. 5 per maund, or 13s. 8d. a hundredweight; gir (unrefined sugar), from Rs. 3 to Rs. 5 per maund, or from 8s. 2d. to 13s. 8d. a hundredweight; chiní (refined sugar), from Rs. 10 to Rs. 15 a maund, or from £1, 7s. 4d. to £2, 1s. od. a hundredweight; common distilled rice spirits, 10 únnás or 1s. 3d. per quart bottle.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—The local weights and measures, with their English equivalents, are returned as follows:-Weights: 6 dhán = 1 rati or '0683 dram; 6 rati = 1 ánná or '41 dram; 4 ánná = 1 sikki or 1.64 drams; 4 sikki = 1 tolá or 180 grains troy or 6:56 drams avoirdupois; 5 tolá = 1 chhaták or 2:05 oz.; 16 chhaták = 1 ser or 2.05 lbs.; 5 ser = 1 pasurí or 10.25 lbs.; 8 pasuri = 1 maund or 82 lbs. This is the standard weight, but is not by any means in common use. No kind of uniformity of weight prevails in Dinájpur. The weight of the ser varies in different parts of the District. In the south of the District the ser is 58 or 60 told weight, while in the northern tracts it is 96; in the town of Dinájpur the ser varies from 90 to 96 tolás. Again, particular commodities are sold by different standards. Thus, rice is ordinarily sold by the ser of 60 told weight, instead of the standard ser of 80 tolds; and sugar by the ser of 68 tolds. All my calculations in this Statistical Account are based upon the standard ser of 80 tolds and the maund of 82 lbs. avoirdupois. The different denominations of measures of quantity, liquid or dry, are as follow: 4 kanchhá = 1

chhaták; 4 chhaták = 1 poyá; 4 poyá = 1 ser; 40 ser = 1 maund. Rice is bought and sold wholesale according to the following standard of quantity:—5 ser = 1 káthá; 20 káthá = 1 bis; 16 bis = 1 pauti. Square measure: 1 dhul = 36 square feet; $1\frac{1}{2}$ dhul = 1 chhaták or 45 square feet; 16 chhaták = 1 káthá or 720 square feet; 20 káthá = 1 bighá or 14,400 square feet. This is the Government or standard bighá, and all my calculations regarding the out-turn of crops, etc. are based upon it. The bighá, however, varies in extent in different parts of the District. Long measure: 12 angulí or finger-breadths = 1 bighát or span; 2 bighát = 1 háth or cubit; 80 háth = 1 rasí or 6'4 poles; 100 rasí = 1 kos or 2 miles. Measure of time: 1 anupál = $\frac{2}{1}$ of a second; 60 anupál = 1 pál or 24 seconds; 60 pál = 1 dandá or 24 minutes; $7\frac{1}{2}$ dandá = 1 prahar or three hours; 8 prahar = 1 dibas or day and night of 24 hours.

LANDLESS LABOURING CLASSES.—At harvest and seed-time, gangs of labourers come to Dinájpur from Purniah and other Districts for field work, and are paid in money either by the day or month. Many permanent labourers are employed on the holdings of the larger agriculturists; they are paid a small money wage in addition to their food, but never by a share of the crop. Many husbandmen who have a larger holding than they can cultivate with their own hands, instead of employing hired labour for the purpose, make over the land on a metayer tenure to another person to cultivate. The landholder advances the seed, the tenant finding labour, oxen, and implements. At harvest time, after the crop has been gathered in. the seed-grain originally advanced is repaid, and the balance shared equally between the proprietor and the cultivator. Occasionally the oxen are provided by the landlord, who in this case receives a larger share of the crop than if the cultivator had to find them. Occasionally, also, it happens that the landlord makes a money advance as well, but such instances are extremely rare. and children are largely employed in field work.

LAND TENURES.—The following account of the different varieties of land tenures met with in Dinájpur District is quoted in a condensed form om a report on the subject drawn up by Bábu Hari Mohan Chandra, Deputy-Collector, dated 15th January 1875:—

ZAMINDARIS.—The following is a list of the number of zamindáris, or estates paying revenue direct to Government, in each of the 79 farganás of Dinájpur District, as returned by the Deputy-Collector:

—(1) Alihát, 1 estate; (2) Aligáon, 5 estates; (3) Ambárí, 1 estate;

(4) Andalgáon, 1 estate; (5) Amdahar, 1 estate; (6) Apail, 20 estates; (7) Babanpur, 1 estate; (8) Bador, 5 estates; (9) Bahámankunda, 1 estate; (10) Bajitpur, 17 estates; (11) Barbakpur, 1 estate; (12) Barágáon, 5 estates; (13) Batásun, 6 estates; (14) Behinnagar, 17 estates; (15) Bhitarband, 2 estates; (16) Bhuinhara, 11 estates; (17) Bijáinágar, 37 estates; (18) Bindhárá, 3 estates; (19) Chalun, 9 estates; (20) Charkai, 1 estate; (21) Chatnagar, 1 estate; (22) Chanrá, 11 estates; (23) Debikot, 9 estates; (24) Dehatta, 17 estates; (25) Delwarpur, 9 estates; (26) Deora, 38 estates; (27) Dhánjor, 10 estates; (28) Fathijangpur, 1 estate; (29) Ghagra, 1 estate; (30) Gorághát, 41 estates; (31) Gilábarí, 52 estates; (32) Hansiá Bangalipur, 1 estate; (33) Hatindá, 1 estate; (34) Jahángírpur, 13 estates; (35) Jhapartáil, 10 estates; (36) Kánkjol, 1 estate; (37) Kantánagar, 1 estate; (38) Karáibárí, 5 estates; (39) Khalára, 2 estates; (40) Khálsi, 8 estates; (41) Khángor, 2 estates; (42) Kharáil, 3 estates; (43) Khardaha, 46 estates; (44) Khás Táluk, 5 estates; (45) Khet Lal, 1 estate; (46) Khupi, 1 estate; (47) Kunj Gorághát, 2 estates; (48) Lalbári Jágír, 1 estate; (49) Lalbari Khalisa, 4 estates; (50) Madnabati, 3 estates; (51) Mahásinhpur, 5 estates; (52) Mahásá, 22 estates; (53) Mahínagar, 2 estates; (54) Maldwar, 2 estates; (55) Maligaon, 4 estates; (56) Masidhá, 5 estates; (57) Mathurápur, 1 estate; (58) Nurpur, 23 estates; (59) Panjrá, 34 estates; (60) Poládasi, 3 estates; (61) Phulbari, 7 estates; (62) Pustail, 7 estates; (63) Radháballabhpur, 4 estates; (64) Rájnagar, 26 estates; (65) Sálbári, 74 estates; (66) Santosh, 53 estates; (67) Sarhattá, 7 estates; (68) Sásbír, 17 estates; (69) Sárípur, 1 estate; (70) Shikarpur, 3 estates; (71) Siksahar, 1 estate; (72) Sujápur, 2 estates; (73) Sultánpur, 9 estates; (74) Surahar Maniker. 12 estates; (75) Sujánagar, 2 estates; (76) Swarruppur, 4 estates; (77) Taherpur, 1 estate; (78) Tájpur, 2 estates; (79) Uchannasta, 1 estate. Total, 770 estates, paying a land revenue to Government of Rs. 1,712,605, or £171,260, 10s. od. These 779 estates are classified as follows, according to the amount of assessment paid by them :--238 estates, comprising a total of 21,000 acres, pay an annual assessment below Rs. 100 or £10; 400 estates, comprising 1,161,000 acres, pay between Rs. 100 and Rs. 5000 (from £10 to £500); 100 estates, comprising 1,850,000 acres, pay between Rs. 5000 and Rs. 50,000 (from \mathcal{L} 500 to \mathcal{L} 5000); and 1 estate, comprising 88,000 acres, pays upwards of Rs. 50,000 (£5000). The whole of these

estates are permanently settled. Besides these, there are 10 small estates, comprising an area of 1719 acres, and assessed at Rs. 215 or £,21, 10s. od. a year, known as 'resumed mahals;' and also 4 Government estates, comprising an area of 295 acres, and assessed at Rs. 42 or £4, 4s. od. a year. These petty estates were the property of private individuals, who held them revenue-free previous to 1819. Under Regulation ii. of that year - the Resumption Law-they were resumed by Government, and the tenures made liable to assessment, the title-deeds by which the holders claimed to hold their lands rent-free having been found to be invalid. Some of the dispossessed holders of these estates appeared before the authorities, and agreed to pay the revenue assessed upon their estates, which have since been permanently settled with them. The estates of the recusant proprietors are still in the hands of Government. Under the present Regulations, they can neither be sold nor permanently settled with other persons than the original proprietors. They are therefore managed either directly by the Collector, or are let out in farm for various periods. Of the four Government estates, one has been purchased by Government at a sale for arrears of revenue; the remaining three are escheats. The number of revenue-free estates in Dinajpur is 133, comprising a total area of 32,920 acres. These were also attached under the Resumption Law: but the deeds on which the proprietors claimed the land were declared to be valid, and the tenures were recognised by Government as revenue-free. They are principally bráhmottar, debottar, and pírpál lands, granted before the British accession to the diwini, either by the emperors of Dehli or by the Dinájpur Rájás. At the time of the Revenue Survey of the District, in 1858-61, several petty estates were brought to light, the existence of which was unknown before. These are known as izád or surplus estates; they number 68, and comprise a total area of 10,588 acres. They are held revenue-free, but if not protected by the Limitation Statute, are considered to be liable to resumption and settlement.

The Deputy-Collector returns the total area in the possession of the samindars and the number of their estates as follow:—Total area of the District, according to the Revenue Survey, 3,167,864 acres, divided into 994 estates. Deducting from this total 2014 acres and 14 estates for the resumed and Government estates, 33,920 acres and 133 estates for the revenue-free tenures, and

10.588 acres and 68 estates as izad or surplus estates, there remains a balance of 3,122,308 acres as the approximate area in the possession of the samindars, divided into 779 estates. The total area given above, namely, 3,167,864 acres or 4950 square miles, probably represents the revenue area, or the tract the Government land revenue of which is paid into the Dinajpur treasury; and does not correspond with the magisterial or geographical area of the District, which was returned by the Boundary Commissioner in November 1874 at 4095'14 square miles. A samindár either keeps his estate in his own management, or lets out his land in parcels on lease (paini) or on farm (ijárá). Painis and ijárás are the only two important tenures immediately under the samindar. There are also istimrári táluks held directly from the samindár, existing from a period anterior to the Permanent Settlement, but these tenures are few in number in Dinájpur. The Deputy-Collector mentions the following as the principal reasons for a samindár letting out his estate in patní or ijárá:-(1) The difficulty and expense of realizing his rents. (2) The loss which he suffers owing to the desertion of the cultivators without paying their rent, just after the cold-weather crop has been cut. This is particularly the case with the Páliyá rayats in the south of the District. (3) The indolent habits of some zamindárs. (4) The distance of a zamindar's residence from his estate. It is estimated that about fiveeighths of the area of the District is let out, principally in patni or ijdra; the remaining three-eighths being under the khas management of the zamindars.

Subordinate Tenures.—The rent-paying tenures held immediately under the zamindár are, as stated above, istimrári táluks, patnis, and ijárás, each of which has a variety of under-tenures of its own. The nature and peculiarities of these tenures are described by the Deputy-Collector as follow:—(1) Istimrári or mukarrári táluks. These tenures are those which were created by the zamindárs or others having a proprietary right in the soil, before the Permanent Settlement of Lord Cornwallis in 1793. They were granted to the lessees, their heirs and successors, in perpetuity, at a fixed rate of rent. The holders of these tenures can transfer or sublet their táluks in patni, ijárá, or otherwise. The tenures are liable to sale only for arrears of rent, and by a decree of a civil court, under the provisions of Act viii. of 1869. In the case of the sale of the parent estate, under Act xi. of 1859, vol. VII.

for arrears of Government revenue, the holders of istimrari taluks are protected from ejectment or enhancement of rent on the part of the auction purchaser. The number of istimrari taluks in Dinájpur cannot be ascertained, but it is comparatively small. (2) Patni táluks. This tenure had its origin on the estates of the Mahárájá of Bardwán, but has since become common throughout Bengal. It is a tenure created by the samindár, to be held by the lessee and his heirs for ever, at a rent fixed in perpetuity. A salámi or present, equal in value to from three to five times the annual rent, is paid by the lessee to the samindar on the creation of the grant. The grant once made, the samindár is divested of connection with the property, the patnidár acquiring every right of proprietorship which the samindar possessed. On failure to pay the rent, however, the samindár has power to sell the tenure under the provisions of Regulation viii. of 1819. Fifty-four of such tenures are registered in the Collector's office under sections 40 and 41 of Act xi. of 1859. There are probably others which have not been registered, but not many, for the tenure is such a valuable one, that the holder is not likely to neglect this precaution against losing it. The fifty-four registered patni estates in Dinajpur District are scattered over twenty-two pargands. The Deputy-Collector returns the number of these estates found in each pargana. together with the rent they pay to the samindár, as follows:-(1) Deará, 4 estates, average rent £46, 14s. od.; (2) Phulbari, 2 estates, average rent £247, 16s. od.; (3) Gilábári, 7 estates, average rent £198, 10s. od.; (4) Poládási, 8 estates, average rent £58, 6s. od.; (5) Santosh, 3 estates, average rent £75; (6) Gorághát, 1 estate, rent £ 141, 6s. od.; (7) Aligáon, 2 estates, average rent £25, 8s. od.; (8) Bijáinagar, 7 estates, average rent £.390, 16s. od.; (9) Karáibári, 1 estate, rent £210, 16s. od.; (10) Khardaha, 1 estate, rent £130, 28. od.; (11) Dehattá, 1 estate, rent £29, 10s. od.; (12) Shikarpur, 1 estate, rent £49, 10s. od.; (13) Kántánagar, 1 estate, rent £3000; (14) Behinnagar, 2 estates, average rent £324, 10s. od.; (15) Chaura, 2 estates, average rent £40, 4s. od.; (16) Jahángírpur, 3 estates, average rent £285; (17) Sásbír, 1 estate, rent £47; (18) Khás Táluk, 1 estate, rent £16, 2s. od.; (19) Panjra, 3 estates, average rent £1806, 4s. od.; (20) Deorá, 1 estate, rent £753, 14s. od.; (21) Rádháballabhpur, 1 estate, rent £40, 18s. od.; (22) Jhapartáil, I estate, rent £229, 10s. od. A patnidár has the power of subletting his tenure, the sub-tenant acquiring the same rights as the patriddr himself possesses from the zamindar. A patri when sublet becomes a dar-patni; a dar-patni when subjet becomes a se-patni. Arrears of rent from these sub-tenures are recoverable under Act viii. of 1860. The Deputy-Collector is unable to state the number of such subordinate paini tenures existing in Dinajpur District. (3) Ijárá. An ijárá is a temporary lease or farm. The ijárádár has no permanent interest in the estate, and his sole object is to make as much as possible out of the cultivators during the term of his lease. He is, however, debarred from ousting the tenants, or from enhancing their rents. In some cases a samindár makes over his estate in ijárá to a person to whom he owes money, in order to liquidate the debt. These latter are called dai sud ijdrds, but they are very few in number in Dinájpur District. Jiárás are generally granted for a term of four or five years, sometimes for eight or ten years, but very seldom for a longer period than twenty years. A samindár cannot oust an ijárádár, except by a decree of the civil court for arrears of rent under Act viii. of 1869. event of a sale of the estate for arrears of Government revenue, the purchaser can oust the ijárádár, except in the case of an ijárá granted for a term of twenty years or upwards, and duly registered under the provisions of Act xi. of 1859. An ijárá is sometimes sublet, and becomes a dar-ijárá,—the term, of course, being limited by that of the ijárá itself. The dar-ijárádár enjoys all the rights and privileges of the ijárádár. The District records give no information as to the number of ijárás or dar-ijárás existing in Dinájpur.

CULTIVATING TENURES OR JOTS.—These are of the following descriptions, namely:—(1) Maurúsi jots are holdings created by a samíndár, to be held by cultivators in perpetuity, at a fixed rate of rent. These tenures are transferable; and the purchaser acquires all the rights and privileges of the original holder. (2) Istimrári jots are cultivators' holdings, the rents of which have not been altered for a period of twenty years, and the owners of which have thus acquired the right of holding them free from liability to enhancement. These tenures, like the foregoing, are saleable by the holders. (3) Jots of cultivators with occupancy rights are holdings of at least twelve years' standing. The owners of these jots cannot be ejected, but the rent can be enhanced by a suit in the civil court. (4) Jots of tenants-at-will are the holdings of culti-

vators who do not possess a right of occupancy, and are liable to ejectment and to the payment of enhanced rents. Generally speaking, the written leases of this class of tenants are limited to a term of two or three years, but in Dinájpur District very few of these holdings are granted on written engagements. (5) Thiká jots are holdings granted for a specified term, generally one or two years, on payment of a stated sum as rent, which is fixed without reference to the quantity of land cultivated. (6) Rasudi jots are holdings, generally of newly-cultivated land, granted at progressive rates of rent for a specified period. Very few of these holdings, however, are met with in Dinájpur District. (7) Adhi jots are lands cultivated by persons other than the holders, on condition of retaining a share in the produce. The cultivator usually finds the plough-bullocks and all the needful agricultural implements, and retains a half-share of the crop at harvest time. (8) Nij jots are the home farms of the samindárs. (9) Chákrán lands are holdings held rent-free in return for services performed to the zamindár. usually by village watchmen, barbers, washermen, or domestic servants, who are remunerated in this manner instead of by money wages. Such tenures are only temporary, and are liable to be resumed by the samindar when the services of the holders are no longer required.

LAKHIRAJ OR RENT-FREE HOLDINGS.—These tenures obtain all over the District, and are principally of the following kinds:-(1) Bráhmottar and Vaishnavottar, for the maintenance of Bráhmans and Vaishnavs; (2) Debottar, for the worship of the gods; (3) Pirpdl, for the maintenance of mosques, raised to the memory of Muhammadan pirs or saints; (4) Aimá lákhiráj, lands granted in charity, or as a reward for services rendered, etc. These rent-free holdings are of very small extent, being generally from 1 to 5 bighás, and not exceeding 40 or 50 bighás. Likhiráj estates of all sorts are exempted from any payments to their donors. Most of the present holders of these tenures are purchasers from the original These lákhiráj lands must not be confounded with the revenue-free lands mentioned in a previous page. The distinction is that the lakhiraj lands are only rent-free, being still liable to Government revenue, which is charged on the estates to which they originally belonged, while the 'valid revenue-free tenures' are altogether exempted from Government assessment.

Soils.—Cultivable land is divided into two classes, known as

pali and khiár. Pasi lands are of a light sandy loam, and produce crops of every description. Khiár lands are a much stiffer soil, and produce only rice crops. These, again, are subdivided as follows:

—Bástu, land on which the cultivator's homestead is situated; ud-bástu, land immediately surrounding the homestead, and generally used as a kitchen garden; ninú, low land, inundated during the rainy season; dangá or karpá, high land, producing sugar-cane, cotton, etc.; sarishá, land producing mustard-seed; dhání or sali, rice land; káchá, nursery land for seedlings; bhar chhaylapí, low, marshy land, which remains under water nearly all the year round; bhar dangá, high land, which is never or very rarely under water. These lands are all of four qualities,—awal or first class, doem or second class, soem or third class, and chharám or fourth class land.

RATES OF RENT.—The table on the two next pages, showing the rates of rent payable for different descriptions of land in various pargands of Dinájpur District, is quoted from a return submitted by the Collector to the Government of Bengal, dated 31st July 1872. It will be observed that there are four varying bighás in vogue in different pargands, namely, one of 80 háths of 18 inches (the standard bighá) = 1600 square yards; one of 90 háths of 18 inches = 2025 square yards; one of 83 háths of 21 inches = 2304 square yards; and one of 84 háths of 21 inches = 2401 square yards. The table shows the rate of rent paid per local bighá, and also the proportionate rent per English acre of 4840 square yards, the amount being expressed in sikká or in Company's rupees, according to the denomination in which it is payable. In many parganás the old sikká rupee is still retained; and where rents are paid according to that standard, a charge for báttá or exchange is levied by the zamindár.

These rates do not include mangan, karchá, and other irregular cesses, which are levied more or less all over the District. In the southern pargands of the District the rates are somewhat higher than in other parts. This is accounted for by the vicinity of such lands to the large rice-mart of Nitpur, and to Samjiá or Kunwárganj, villages possessing a considerable export trade. Rents have increased of late years throughout the District, but the Collector doubts if this result is attributable to the operations of Act x. of 1859.

Manure is used on khiúr rice lands, and also on such pali lands [Sentence continued on page 408.

RATES OF RENT FOR ORDINARY LAND IN DINASPUR DISTRICT.

Dehattá	Measure of each <i>Bighd</i> . Kent payable per local <i>Bighd</i> .	Proportionate Rest per Acre of 4840 English Square Yards.
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Gar. Danis, Roya, Roya, Burga,	Do.	205.307
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Bid or Bund, Bid, Bid	Do	
Ear, Dingd, Dingd, Bit, Ripd, Dil or Bund, Pult, Did or Bund, Ropd, Rr, Bit or Bund, Ropd, Rr, Rr, Rr, Rr, Rr, Rr, Rr, Rr, Rr, Rr	Do. 0 6 .: 0 12 .:	
ha, Bar, Bar, Bar, Bar, Bar, Char, Char, Roya, Britor Bund, Pati, Khiar, Fati, Khiar,	Do.	
ha, bil or blind, ngar, Pull, Royd, Royd, M, Royd, Mil or Bund, Royd, Mil or Bund, Pali, Fali, Khiar, Pali, Fali, Rhiar, Pali, Pali, Pali, Pali, Pali, Pali, Pali,	Do	1 8 3 2 0 S
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K.yd. Bit or Bund. Copd. Bit or Bund. Falt. Khiar. Falt. Khiar. Falt. Khiar. Falt.	25 01 0 : 4 0	0 8 1 4 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6
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RATES OF RENT FOR ORDINARY LAND IN DINAJPUR DISTRICT—conlinued.

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Sentence continued from page 405.]

as produce sugar-cane and other valuable crops. Cow-dung is most commonly used; and the Collector reports that this manure is employed to a greater extent in Dinájpur than in other Districts of Bengal. About twenty maunds per bighá (equal to .44 hundred-weights per acre) would be considered a liberal allowance of cow-dung manure for rice land; and eighty maunds per bighá (equal to 175½ hundredweights per acre) for sugar-cane lands. Clay dug from pits is also used as a fertilizer, and is mixed with the surface soil at the time the crop is taken off the field. Cow-dung is never bought and sold; and the Collector states that it is impossible to form an estimate as to the cost of manure.

IRRIGATION is hardly practised at all in Dinapur except for boro rice, for which it is absolutely necessary. This crop, however, is only grown in one small part of the District. In a very dry season, or when the rains set in late, the seed rice and young plants may occasionally require irrigation. In such a case the water is raised from a neighbouring well or tank by means of a lever. The cost of irrigation to the cultivator is not easily estimated. The wells are constructed by kumárs or potters, who dig them as well as make the circular earthenware rings which are placed round the side of the well one above the other, in order to prevent it from falling in. The cost of constructing a well in pall land is from Rs. 2 to Rs. 5 (4s. to 10s.), and in khiár land from Rs. 10 to Rs. 30 (£1 to £3). In the former, water is reached within from 12 to 25 feet of the surface; in the latter, water is seldom met with in less than 40 feet from the surface, and the soil being firmer, the earthenware rings are not always used. Khiár or rice land is never allowed to remain fallow. Pall land receives an occasional rest, being usually allowed to remain uncultivated one or two years in every five or six. system of rotation of crops is practised or understood by the people.

NATURAL CALAMITIES.—Dinájpur does not suffer from blights or floods to any appreciable degree. During the rainy season, a great portion of the District is under water, caused both by the rising of the rivers and by heavy local rainfall. The inundation, however, does little or no harm. Drought is the only calamity which exercises any serious prejudicial effect on the crops; but even this seldom does more than increase the selling price of rice about fifteen per cent. The Collector reports (1871) that no demand exists for canals or irrigation works.

FAMINE WARNINGS.—The maximum prices of rice during the famine year of 1865-66 were, for best cleaned rice, Rs. 4. 7. o per maund, or 12s. 1d. a hundredweight; and for common rice, Rs. 4. 1. 6 a maund, or 11s. 2d. a hundredweight. In January 1871 the Collector reported to me that prices had then returned to what were considered as their ordinary rates before 1866. The dman or winter rice is the principal crop of Dinajpur; and if this failed, the dus or autumn rice crop would not suffice to feed the people. Fortunately, however, the Collector states that the dman harvest has never been known to fail altogether. This opinion was recorded in 1871; but the protracted drought in the autumn of 1873, which destroyed the áman crops generally in the north of Bengal, was severely felt even in Dinájpur. The scarcity that resulted was so great as to compel the Government to undertake relief operations The total amount expended on public works on a grand scale. and charitable distributions connected therewith in Dinajpur District in that year, as returned in the District Road Fund Report, amounted to £162,188.

FOREIGN AND ABSENTEE PROPRIETORS.—In 1871 there were only two Europeans registered as proprietors on the rent-roll of the District. The number of Musalmán proprietors in the same year was 573, out of a total of 739; the amount of land revenue paid by them being £19,144, out of a total of £173,454. Of the total land revenue of Dinájpur District, 45 per cent., or £79,472, is derived from the estates of absentee proprietors.

ROADS AND MEANS OF COMMUNICATION.—In 1871 the Collector returned the principal roads and traffic routes as follow:—(1) An imperial line of road running from south to north, from Barhampur through the town of Dinájpur on to Dárjiling. The length of this road within Dinájpur District is about 130 miles. The Collector is unable to return the cost of maintenance and repairs expended on this road, as it is under the management of the Public Works Department. The following are the roads under local management:—(2) Gangárámpur road, 18 miles in length; average cost of maintenance (1871), £10. (3) Rangpur road, 24 miles; average cost of maintenance, £30. (4) Bográ road, 36 miles; average cost, £25. (5) Maldah road, 40 miles; average cost, £40. (6) Purniah road, 48 miles; average cost, £15. (7) Nekmard Fair road, 36 miles; average cost, £5. During the Bengal scarcity of 1874, which was felt with considerable severity in Dinájpur District, the famine

relief operations, which were undertaken in order to provide labour and food for the distressed, were chiefly directed to repairing existing lines of road, constructing new roads, tank digging, etc. The amount expended under the District officers on the local roads in 1874 is returned as follows in a report by the Collector on the Dinájpur Road Fund for the year 1874, dated 10th July 1875, and published in the Calcutta Gazette of 29th September 1875, part i. p. 1245 et seq. :- Repairs to old roads-Maldah road, £1054, 13s. 6d.; Rangpur road, £141, 158. 3d.; Bográ road, £189, 168. 3d.; Purniah road, £2126, 198. 9d.; Murshidábád road, £3095, 168. 9d.; Gangárampur road, £11, 198. 10d.; Darisling road, £1361, 138. 3d.; tools and plant establishment, etc., £311, os. 10d.: total, £8283, 15s. 5d. New roads constructed as feeders to the Northern Bengal State Railway-Road from Gorághát to Híli, £1451, 38. 11d.; road from Phulbari to Pirganj in Rangpur, £,223, 8s. 6d.; road from Phulbárí to Samjiá, £325, 9s. 9d.; road from Phulbárí to Bauchandá in Rangpur, £175, 4s. 11d.; road from Phulbárí to Pátirám, £520, 148. 2d.; road from Kachudángá to Berámpur, £168, 18s. 10d.; road from Nitpur to Sibpur, £729, 8s. 8d.; road from Sibpur to Dam-damá, £1773, 118. 8d.; road from Sibpur to Sítáhár in Bográ, £590, 13s. 2d.; road from Párbatipur to Rangpur, £50, 10s. 10d.; road from Gorághát to Samjiá, £11, 5s. 6d.; tools, plant, etc., £162, 38. 1d.: total, £6182, 138. od. Total of repairs and of new roads, £14,466, 8s. 5d. Besides this large sum, a very much greater amount was assigned to the special famine officers appointed to the District, for road making, tank digging, and other works of local improvement. For this purpose the District was divided into sixteen circles. The total amount thus spent by the relief officers is returned in the accounts of the District Road Fund at £162,188; but the materials before me do not show how much of it was expended upon road making as distinguished from tank digging, purchase of grain, or any of the other items connected with famine relief.

The new Northern Bengal State Railway will intersect the eastern tract of Dinájpur District for a distance of about thirty miles. The five canals existing in the District have been described in a previous section of this Statistical Account. As already mentioned, they have been constructed by rajás and wealthy zamindárs for the purpose of religious processions, and not with any view to traffic.

MANUFACTURES. - Dinájpur is purely an agricultural District.

and manufactures are very few. A little coarse cotton cloth is made for home use; and in some parts a coarse but very durable cloth called mekli is made from the wild rhea grass. Gunny cloth is woven in the northern part of the District to a considerable extent, but this is a manufacture of the very coarsest description.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.—Rice, tobacco, jute, gunny cloth, salt, and molasses are the chief articles of trade in this District. The principal seats of commerce are Ráiganj, Nitpur, Gorághát, and Kumárganj, but there are numerous large produce depôts scattered throughout the District along the river banks. Besides the permanent markets, a considerable proportion of the District trade is carried on at the large annual fairs, the principal of which are the Nekmard, Alawá Kháwá, Dholdighí, and Sontápur fairs, described on a previous page. No complete statistics exist, showing the relative value or total amount of exports and imports of Dinájpur; but since 1872 a system of registration of boat traffic has been established on certain of the main water-channels, by which the produce of Bengal finds its way either to the sea or to the Districts of Behar and the North-Western Provinces. From the statistics afforded by these registration stations, a fair estimate may be made of the exports and imports of the Districts whose traffic is chiefly carried on by means of the Ganges or its tributaries and branches. The following paragraphs, illustrating the river-borne trade of Dinájpur, are collated from an elaborate minute on the boat traffic of Bengal, published by the Government, dated the 18th October 1875 :--

RICE EXPORTS.—The trade of Dinapur with the North-Western Provinces consists almost entirely of the export of rice. The registration station at Sahibganj returns only the actual shipping marts; and as a great portion of the grain produced in the rice-fields of Dinájpur is shipped from large river-side produce depôts in Maldah, it is necessary to combine the Sahibganj returns for both Maldah and Dinájpur, in order to learn the total exports from the latter District. In 1872 the total quantity of rice which passed Sahibganj from Dinájpur and Maldah Districts amounted to 1,628,794 maunds or 59,625 tons; and in 1873, to 1,538,898 maunds or 56,334 tons. In the famine year of 1874, the exports, even from a great riceproducing District like Dinájpur, almost entirely ceased. In that year the exports of rice from Maldah and Dinájpur combined amounted only to 53,275 maunds or 1950 tons. In ordinary years,

the great bulk of all the rice sent up country from Bengal is despatched from Maldah and Dinájpur, by far the greater portion being grown in the latter District. The principal marts are Nitpur on the Purnabhábá, which in 1873 exported 337,928 maunds or 12,370 tons; Rohanpur, 407,489 maunds or 14,917 tons; Ráiganj on the Kulik, 80,462 maunds or 2945 tons; Asani on the Tangan, 95,151 maunds or 3483 tons; and Kálkámárá on the Tángan, 71,223 maunds or 2607 tons; and Champátálá, Dinájpur, Nawabázár, and Navábandar, all on the Purnabhábá. Besides these, there is the large mart of Gopálgani, which does not appear in the Sáhibgani returns, but from which a former Collector, Mr. Robinson, estimated that the exports could not be less than 180,000 maunds or 6589 tons. Mr. Robinson estimated that the quantity of rice exported from Dinajpur up country was 1,700,000 or 1,800,000 maunds, or from 62,232 to 65,892 tons, exclusive of the Maldah rice, which the late Collector of that District estimated at 250,000 maunds or 9151 tons. Mr. Robinson is of opinion that the Sahibgani returns very much underestimate the quantity of the exports from Dinájpur; but this probably arises from the difficulty of distinguishing between Maldah and Dinajpur rice, under the system hitherto in A more accurate system of registration has now been force. established.

Of the total surplus rice of Dinájpur, it is roughly estimated that one-half is exported to the North-Western Provinces by way of the Tángan, Kulik, Purnabhábá, and other streams, into the Mahánandá, and so into the Ganges; and that the remaining half is exported southwards. Most of the exports to Calcutta come by way of the Atrái into the Matábhángá. A little also finds its way down the Mahananda and on to Calcutta by way of the Jalangi route. The traffic from the Atrái river to Calcutta goes almost entirely down the Matabhanga till the middle of October; after which, if the Matabhángá gets dry, it goes round by the Sundarbans, or by way of the Eastern Bengal Railway. The returns of traffic from the Matábhángá during 1872 and 1873 give a detailed account of exports to Calcutta of rice from the under-mentioned marts, as follows:-(1) Pátirám—rice exported in 1872, 115,491 maunds or 4227 tons : in 1873, 112,021 maunds or 4100 tons. (2) Kumárgani—exports in 1872, 94,875 maunds or 3473 tons; in 1873, 114,818 maunds or 4203 tons. (3) Chándganj—exports in 1872, 59,000 maunds or 2150 tons; in 1873, 82,034 maunds or 3003 tons. (4) Káliganj—

exports in 1872, 44,294 maunds or 1621 tons; in 1873, 57,733 maunds or 2113 tons. (5) Chak Gopál-exports in 1872, 42,004 maunds or 1537 tons; in 1873, 43,365 maunds or 1542 tons. (6) Fakirganj—exports in 1872, 77,162 maunds or 2824 tons; in 1873. 54,921 maunds or 2010 tons. (7) Jiban Bázár or Gorághát—exports in 1872, 67,600 maunds or 2474 tons; in 1873, nil. (8) Rángámáti-exports in 1872, 63,350 maunds or 2319 tons; in 1873, 58,815 maunds or 2153 tons. (9) Páglí-bandar—exports in 1872, 46,050 maunds or 1685 tons; in 1873, 49,669 maunds or 1818 tons. (10) Samjiá-exports in 1872, nil; in 1873, 56,478 maunds or 2067 tons. (11) Madanganj—exports in 1872, nil; in 1873, 12.780 maunds or 467 tons. (12) Brahmapur—exports in 1872, nil; in 1873, 20,370 maunds or 745 tons. (13) Bálughát-exports in 1872, nil; in 1873, 34,383 maunds or 1258 tons. (14) Hili-exports in 1872, 234,598 maunds or 8587 tons; in 1873, 38,283 maunds or 1401 tons. (15) Small places—exports in 1872, nil; in 1873, 53,750 maunds or 1967 tons. Total in 1872, 844,424 maunds or 30,822 tons; in 1873, 789,420 maunds or 28,898 tons. The whole of this, however, is not Dinájpur produce. A great deal of the rice of the west and south-west of Rangpur District is collected at the Dinájpur marts on the Atrái and Karátoyá, and so sent to Calcutta.

Of the foregoing marts, Pátirám, Kumárganj, Chándganj, Kálíganj, Chak Gopál, Fakírganj, Rángámátí, Páglí bandar, Samjiá, Brahmapur, and Bálughát are all on the Atrái river and in Dinájpur District. Jíban Bázár or Gorághát is on the Karátoyá. is on the Jamuná, and in Bográ District, but largely exports Dinájpur rice, and is therefore returned here. All these marts are in close proximity to each other. Mr. Robinson seems to consider these returns of exports to be understated. When Collector of the District in 1873, he estimated that the total export of rice from these marts could not be less than 1,500,000 maunds or 54,910 tons. Of this amount, it appears that from 800,000 to 1,000,000 maunds, or from 29,285 to 36,607 tons are consigned down the Matábhángá river to Calcutta; it is known that at least 200,000 maunds or 29,285 tons are conveyed by the Eastern Bengal Railway; a small quantity, probably from 10,000 to 20,000 maunds, or from 366 to 722 tons, follows the canal route; and the remainder probably finds its way into Districts south of the Ganges for local consumption. In the winter of 1873 the crops of this large riceproducing tract failed, and the registered exports in 1874 did not exceed 10,000 maunds or 366 tons altogether. The rice exported by way of the Mahánandá and Jalangí amounted in 1873 to 25,000 maunds or 915 tons from Dinájpur, 53,000 maunds or 1940 tons from Maldah, and 120,000 maunds or 4392 tons from the large mart of Híli in Bográ.

OTHER EXPORTS.—Jute also is largely exported from Dinájpur. From Bhusí mart, 16,225 maunds or 594 tons were exported by way of the Atrái and Matábhángá in 1872, 19,983 maunds or 731 tons in 1873, and 19,850 maunds or 726 tons in 1874. From Ráiganj, 28,310 maunds or 1036 tons were exported in 1873, and only 1990 maunds or 72 tons in 1874. Jute is also exported from Dinájpur by way of Sirájganj, but no separate statistics show what proportion of the jute from Sirájganj belongs to Dinájpur. Gunny bags, to the extent of about 40,000 maunds or 1464 tons per annum, are exported from Dinájpur by way of the Matábhángá. The exports of tobacco in 1874 amounted to 6200 maunds or 226 tons from Bhusí viá the Matábhángá.

IMPORTS.—The only import into the District concerning which the Government minute gives any statistics is salt, of which 7869 maunds or 288 tons were imported from Calcutta by way of the Matábhángá, Jalangí, and Bhágirathí rivers in 1874. The other imports into Dinájpur, concerning which I have no information, are sugar, pulse, wheat, oats, ghí or clarified butter, metal utensils, etc.

CAPITAL AND INTEREST.—The current rate of interest in small transactions, where ornaments or household utensils are pawned as security for the repayment of a loan, is usually half an anna in the rupee per month, or 37½ per cent. per annum. In large loan transactions, where a mortgage is given upon moveable property, the ordinary rate is 24 per cent. per annum; or when houses or lands are mortgaged, from 12 to 18 per cent. It is not customary in Dinájpur to make small money advances to the cultivators with a lien upon the crops. The mahájans, or grain merchants, however. make advances to the husbandmen for the purchase of their crops for trading purposes. No interest is charged on such advances. but the merchant receives the grain at harvest time at something less than the market rate. Ten per cent. per annum is considered a fair return for money invested in the purchase of an estate. There are large native banking establishments in Dinájpur; but loans are also conducted by shopkeepers and others, who combine ordinary trading with money-lending. No newspapers are published in the District, nor in 1871 was there any printing press.

Income of the District.—The estimated total of incomes in Dinájpur District over £50 a year, as far as indicated by the operation of the Income Tax Act of 1870, is about £450,000. The net amount of tax realized in Dinájpur District in 1870-71, at the rate of $3\frac{1}{8}$ per cent., was £12,473, 8s. od. In the following year, 1871-72, the rate of the tax was reduced to $1\frac{1}{8}$ per cent., and the minimum of incomes liable to assessment raised to £75 per annum. The net amount of tax realized in that year was £2056, 14s. od.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.—I have endeavoured to present a comparative statement of the revenue and expenditure of Dinaipur District for the years 1787-88, 1820-21, 1850-51, 1860-61, and 1870-71; but the deficiencies in the materials at my disposal, the many alterations in area which have taken place, and the changes in the method of keeping District accounts, render any really trustworthy comparison impossible. Returns of revenue and expenditure have been furnished by the Collector; but for the early years they are manifestly deficient in many respects, many items being omitted altogether, such as jails, police, etc., while others are included which are only matters of account, such as the advance to the Commercial Resident of Maldah, which appears in the table for 1820-21. I therefore simply print the tables for 1787-88, 1820-21, 1850-51, and 1860-61. as furnished to me by the Collector. The table for 1870-71, however. I have been enabled to make tolerably complete, and the balance sheet for that year may be taken to fairly represent the net civil revenue and expenditure of the District. The tables on the following pages, although of not much value for comparative purposes. to show the growth in the total revenue and expenditure of the District, may be useful as indicating the increase under certain specific heads, despite of a diminished area. (Vide pp. 416-421.)

LAND REVENUE.—In the great agricultural District of Dinájpur, the land furnishes a larger proportion of the Government revenue than, probably, in any other District of Bengal. In 1870-71 it contributed no less than 81.5 per cent. of the total revenue of the District. Sub-infeudation of estates has gone on rapidly under British rule, although not to the same extent as in the eastern Districts of Bengal, where the land is split up into little handbreadths. In 1787-88, the first year for which records are available, Dinájpur [Sentence continued on page 422.

BALANCE SHEET OF DINAJPUR DISTRICT FOR 1787-88.

Land Revenue,	REVENUE	Expenditure.	
. 1,276 3 0 General Charges,			0 9 00953
Allowance to Pensioners,		o General Charges,	3,448 5 6
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Draft in favour of Judge of Dinájpur,		Allowance to Pensioners,	33 15 0
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	Total, £161,952 19		£11,457 6 4

BALANCE SHEET OF DINAJPUR DISTRICT FOR 1820-21.

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.xpenditure.	1. Revenue Charges General,	
REVENUE.	1. Land Revenue,	-

* These items are matters of account, and not expenditure upon the District Administration. Deducting them from the total, there would remain a net civil expenditure of £15,227, 18. 9d.

BALANCE SHEET OF DINAJPUR DISTRICT FOR 1850-51.

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	1	딥	3. Stamps,	'n.	5. Judicial Charges General,	<u> 2</u>		8. Pc	9. Profit and Losa,	10. Civil Buildings,	11. Civil Suits,	12. Local Funds,		
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BALANCE SHEET OF DINAJPUR DISTRICT FOR 1860-61.

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Ř	REVENUE.							Expen	Expenditure.				
1. Land Revenue, .			113	11 \$ 406'9413'	5 11		1. Judicial Charges,	٠.	•	•	8 S1 467,913.	15	•
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4. Stamps	•		•	5,092 0	0	_	4. Revenue Charges (a second entry),	es (a secon	d entry)	•	¥.	744 3 11	11
5. Judicial Receipts, .	•	•	•	1,703 19	2 61	_	5. Stamps (discount to vendors),	at to vend	, E	•	453	453 12 10	0
6. Revenue Receipts, .	•			14 15	15 2		6. Public Works Department,)epartment	ۍ.		1,604,11	-	60
7. Public Works Department,	Ħ,	•	•	721 2	60		7. Sayer Compensation,	ation,	•		539	539 10	9
8. Profit and Loss,	•	•	•	1, 138 11 11	11 11		8. Education,	•		•	873	~	m
9. Post Office,	•		•	726	726 2 0	٠	9. Post Office,	•			1,081	00	0
10. Education,	•			26	01 11 16		10. LAW Charges,			•	159 17	17	m
11. Income Tax,	•			1,081	0		11. Interest on Government Promissory Notes,	ernment F	romiss	ty Notes,	₫	\$	•
12. Local Funds, .	•	•		2,483 17 9	17 9		12. Fines and Refunds,	ods,			-	-	•
						<u> </u>	13. Local Funds,	•		•	843	843 3	0
		Total		£196,217 1 0						Total,	646,150 0	0	=
						4							

BALANCE SHEET OF DINAJPUR DISTRICT FOR 1870-71.

REVENUE		Expenditure	
I. Land Revenue,	. £173.454 16 o	1. District Share of Salary of Commis-	
2. Excise, exclusive of Opium,	2,688 2 8	sioner of the Division,	CC4 13 10
3. Opium,	. 3,527 16 0	2. Salaries of Collector and other gazetted	
4. Stamps,	11,607 15 1	Officers,	2,600 0 0
5. Police,	30 14 11	3. Salary of Civil and Sessions Tudge.	0 00
6. Jails (Manufacture Department),	. 993 1	4. Revenue Charges.	
7. *Post Office,	9 8 050'1 .	S. Malikind.	238 16
8. Income Tax (net),	. 12,473 8 0	6. Saver Compensation	
9. Public Works Department,	438 6 9	7. Law and Inctice Civil	2000
Io. Registration,	481 14 3	8. Law and Incide Criminal	
11. Sale of Medicines,	22 16 0	O Public Works Densaturent	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
12. Rate for managing Wards, Fetates	, a 996	20 Benitarii	0 0 0
•	7 9 93	Ju. Acgustinon,	149 2 8
	. 802 1	11. Railway Department,	650 0 0
	1,369 88	12. Regular Police,	2,546 16 0
15. Miscellaneous,	. 276 18 0	13. Jails, slist	1,831 9 4
		It. Education,	2,477 3 7
		15. Post Office,	1,945 5 5
		16. Salary of Civil Surgeon,	639 1 4
Carry foçward,	. £209.533 15 8	Carry forward,	8 01 022 KFF

* Items marked * have been obtained from the different departmental reports. All other items are as furnished in a special return by the Collector.

BALANCE SHEET OF DINAJPUR DISTRICT FOR 1870-71-continued.

REVENUE		Expenditure	
Brought forward,	£209,533 15 8	Brought forward, 17. Charitable Dispensaries and Vaccination, 18. Wards' Estates, 19. Pensions, 20. Interest on Promissory Notes, 21. Interest on Savings Bank Deposits, 22. Gratuities, 23. Discount on sale of Stamps, 24. Miscellaneous Charges,	633,220 10 8 246 11 0 47 7 7 106 5 8 547 19 6 17 8 8 36 0 0 13 12 0
Level Fund. 16. 1 per cent. Road Fund,	2,807 3 1	25. District Roads,	2,237 2 11 6,35,839 16 8

Sentence continued from page 415.]

District consisted of 28 estates, owned by as many registered proprietors or coparceners, who paid a total land revenue to Government of £160,669; average amount paid from each estate and by each proprietor, £5738, 3s. 6d. In 1800, the number of separate estates had increased to 400, and the proprietors or coparceners to 397; total land revenue paid, £174,082, 2s. od.; average payment from each estate, £435, 4s. 1d.; average payment by each individual proprietor, £438, 9s. 10d. In 1850-51 the separate estates borne on the District rent-roll numbered 762, and the individual proprietors or coparceners 1957; total land revenue paid, £181,731; average payment from each estate, £238, 9s. 10d.; average payment by each individual proprietor or coparcener, £92, 178. 3d. In 1870-71 a decreased area caused the land revenue to fall slightly to £173,454, 16s. od., and the number of estates to 739. The number of proprietors, however, continued to increase, and in 1870-71 stood at 2035; average payment from each estate, £234, 148. 3d.; average payment by each individual proprietor or coparcener, £85, 4s. 8d. The Collector states that the general average indicated above fairly represents the state of landed property in Dinájpur District.

RENT CASES INSTITUTED UNDER ACT X. OF 1859.—The number of rent cases instituted under the provisions of Act x. of 1859, or of subsequent laws based upon it, are returned by the Collector as follow:—In 1861-62 there were 844 original suits, and 806 miscellaneous applications; in 1862-63, 797 original suits, and 746 miscellaneous applications; in 1866-67, 615 original suits, and 1664 miscellaneous applications; and in 1868-69, 821 original suits, and 1799 miscellaneous applications.

PROTECTION TO PERSON AND PROPERTY HAS STEADILY INCREASED.—In 1787-88 there were only two magisterial and three civil and revenue courts in the whole District; in 1800-1 there were two magisterial and four civil and revenue courts; in 1850-51, seven magisterial and sixteen civil and revenue courts; in 1860-61, six magisterial and sixteen civil and revenue courts; and in 1870-71, seven magisterial and fifteen civil and revenue courts. The number of covenanted European officers constantly stationed in the District was, three in 1787-88, five in 1800-1, five in 1850-51, three in 1860-61, and four in 1870-71.

Police Protection has also been rendered more complete. In 1840, the force for the protection of person and property consisted

of 53 native officers and 242 foot constables, with 7224 village watchmen. In 1860, there were 60 native officers and 242 foot constables, with 6501 village watchmen. The present District police force was constituted in 1861.

At the present day, Dinájpur District is divided into seventeen police circles or thánás, as follows:—(1) Dinájpur; (2) Rájárámpur; (3) Bírganj; (4) Káliáganj; (5) Hemtábád; (6) Bangsihári; (7) Gangárámpur; (8) Pátirám; (9) Patnitálá; (10) Porshá; (11) Chintáman; (12) Hábrá; (13) Nawábganj; (14) Gorághát or Ráníganj; (15) Pírganj; (16) Ránísankáil; and (17) Thákurgáon. The present police force consists of the regular District police, a municipal police for the protection of the towns, and a village constabulary. The total strength and cost of maintenance of each of these bodies in 1872 were as follow:—

THE REGULAR POLICE consisted of the following strength at the end of 1872:-1 superior European officer on District Superintendent, maintained at a salary of Rs. 600 a month, or £720 a year; 5 subordinate officers on a salary of upwards of Rs. 100 a month, or £ 120 a year, and 54 officers on less than Rs. 100 a month, or £ 120 a year, maintained at a total cost of Rs. 2465 a month, or £2958 a year, equal to an average pay of Rs. 41. 12. 5 a month, or £50, 28. 71d. a year, for each subordinate officer, and 328 foot police constables, maintained at a total cost of Rs. 2193 a month, or £2631, 12s. od. a year, equal to an average pay of Rs. 6. 10. 11 a month, or £8, os. 4d. a year, for each man. The other expenses connected with the regular police were,—an average sum of Rs. 100 a month, or £120 a year, as travelling expenses for the District Superintendent; Rs. 194. 5. 4 a month, or £233, 4s. od. a year, for pay and travelling allowances for his office establishment; and an average of Rs. 508. 14. 8 a month, or £610, 14s. od. a year, for contingencies and all other expenses. The total cost of the regular police of Dinajpur District in 1872 amounted to Rs. 6061. 4. 0 a month, or £7273, 10s. od. for the year; total strength of the force, 388 men of all ranks. The present area of Dinájpur District is 4126 square miles, and the total population, as ascertained by the Census of 1872, is 1,501,924 souls. According to these figures, there is one policeman to every 10.63 square miles of the District area, and one to every 3870 of the population. The annual cost of maintenance of the force is equal to Rs. 17. 10. o per square mile of area, and R. o. o. o or 11d. per head of the population.

THE MUNICIPAL POLICE is a small force, which consisted at the end of 1872 of 2 native officers and 40 men, maintained at a total cost of Rs. 278. 9. 4 a month, or £334, 6s. od. a year. This force is for the protection of the municipality of Dinájpur, the head-quarters town of the District; and its cost is defrayed by means of a house rate, levied upon the householders and shopkeepers carrying on business within municipal limits. The population of Dinájpur is returned at 13,042, giving one policeman to every 310 inhabitants. The cost of the municipal police in 1872, as compared with the town population, amounted to 4 dands 1 pie or 6 d. per head of the population.

The VILLAGE WATCH or rural police numbered 5297 in 1872, maintained either by the samindars or by service lands held rent-free, at an estimated total cost of Rs. 81,088 or £8108, 16s. od. Compared with the area and population, there is one village watchman or chaukidar to every '77 of a square mile of the District area, or one to every 283 of the population, maintained at an estimated cost of Rs. 19. 10. 8 or £1, 19s. 4d. per square mile of area, or $10\frac{1}{2}$ pies or about $1\frac{3}{2}$ d. per head of the population. Each village watchman has charge of 37 houses on an average, and receives an average pay in money or lands of Rs. 1. 4. 3 a month, or £1, 10s. 4\flackdright d. a year.

Including, therefore, the regular District police, the municipal police, and the village watch, the machinery for protecting person and property in Dinájpur District consisted at the end of 1872 of a total force of 5727 officers and men, equal to an average of one man to every 72 of a square mile as compared with the District area, or one man to every 262 souls as compared with the population. The estimated aggregate cost of maintaining this force, both Government and local, and including the value of the rent-free lands held by the chaukidars, in 1872 amounted to Rs. 13,097. 2. 8 a month, or £15,716, 12s. od. for the year, equal to a charge of Rs. 38. 1. 5 or £3, 16s. 2d. per square mile of the District area, or R. o. 1. 8 or 2½d. per head of the population.

Working of the Police.—During the year 1872, 2884 'cognisable' cases were reported to the police, of which 351 were discovered to be false, besides 193 which the police declined to take up. Convictions were obtained in 1726 cases, or 73.76 per cent of the 'true' cases; the proportion of 'true' cases being as one to every 641 of the population. Of 'non-cognisable' cases, 850 were instituted, in which process issued in 742, in which 453 persons

were convicted; the proportion of persons convicted being as one to every 3315 of the population.

The following details of the number of cases, convictions for different crimes and offences, in 1872, are taken from the report of the Inspector-General of Police for that year. The 'cognisable' cases were as follow: -Class I. Offences against the State, public tranquillity, safety, and justice-Offences relating to coin, stamps, and Government notes, I case, no convictions, I person tried, none convicted: harbouring an offender, 2 cases, 2 convictions, 2 persons tried, 2 convicted; other offences against public justice, 6 cases, 6 convictions, 19 persons tried, 19 convicted; rioting or unlawful assembly, 18 cases, 8 convictions, 84 persons tried, 69 convicted; personating public servant or soldier, 4 cases, 3 convictions, 5 persons tried. 3 convicted. Class II. Serious offences against the person-Murder by dakáits, 2 cases, no convictions, no person tried, none convicted; murder by poison, 2 cases, 1 conviction, 3 persons tried, 1 convicted; other murders, 6 cases, 3 convictions, 25 persons tried, 8 convicted; culpable homicide, 6 cases, 4 convictions, 11 persons tried, 11 convicted; rape, 26 cases, 11 convictions, 21 persons tried, 11 convicted; unnatural offences, 7 cases, 5 convictions, 7 persons tried, 5 convicted; exposure of infants or concealment of birth, 1 case, 1 conviction, 1 person tried, 1 convicted; attempt at and abetment of suicide, 2 cases, 2 convictions, 2 persons tried, 2 convicted; grievous hurt for the purpose of extorting property or confession, 1 case, 1 conviction, 2 persons tried, 2 convicted; grievous hurt, 75 cases, 12 convictions, 45 persons tried, 29 convicted; hurt for purpose of extorting property or confession, I case, I conviction, 2 persons tried, 2 convicted; hurt by dangerous weapon, 1 case, 1 conviction, 4 persons tried, 1 convicted; kidnapping or abduction, 13 cases, 4 convictions, 29 persons tried, 11 convicted; wrongful confinement, restraint in secret, or for purposes of extortion, 13 cases, 3 convictions, 21 persons tried, 7 convicted; selling, letting, or unlawfully obtaining a woman for prostitution, r case, I conviction, I person tried, I convicted; criminal force to public servant or woman, or in attempt to commit theft or wrongfully confine, 8 cases, 7 convictions, 12 persons tried, 10 convicted; rash or negligent act causing death or grievous hurt, I case, I conviction, 1 person tried, 1 convicted. Class III. Serious offences against person or property, or against property only-Dakditi, 22 cases, 7 convictions, 76 persons tried, 54 convicted; other robberies, 48 cases, 6 convictions, 36 persons tried, 12 convicted; serious mischief and cognate offences, 60 cases, 27 convictions, 55 persons tried, 29 convicted; lurking house-trespass or house-breaking with intent to commit an offence, or having made preparation for hurt, 518 cases, 33 convictions, 66 persons tried, 37 convicted; house-trespass with a view to commit an offence, or having made preparation for hurt, 6 cases, 5 convictions, 11 persons tried, 10 convicted. Class IV. Minor offences against the person-Wrongful restraint and confinement, 77 cases, 14 convictions, 104 persons tried, 31 convicted. Class V. Minor offences against property-Lurking house-trespass or house-breaking, 15 cases, 4 convictions, 14 persons tried, 4 convicted; theft of cattle, 10 cases, 5 convictions, 12 persons tried, 9 convicted; ordinary theft, 375 cases, 106 convictions, 251 persons tried, 161 convicted; criminal breach of trust, 21 cases, 6 convictions, 15 persons tried, 6 convicted; receiving stolen property, 71 cases, 64 convictions, 120 persons tried, 104 convicted; criminal or house-trespass, 50 cases, 13 convictions, 55 persons tried, 19 convicted; breaking closed receptacle, none. Class VI. Vagrancy and bad character, 71 cases, 30 convictions, 71 persons tried, 30 convicted; offences against religion, 1 case, no convictions, a persons tried, none convicted; cognisable offences under the Gambling Act, 4 cases, 2 convictions, 23 persons tried, 7 convicted; excise laws, 7 cases, 6 convictions, 15 persons tried, 13 convicted; Stamp Act, 2 cases, no convictions, 3 persons tried, none convicted; public and local nuisances, 1326 cases, 1311 convictions, 1323 persons tried, 1311 convicted; other special and local laws cognisable by the police, 2 cases, 1 conviction, 7 persons tried, 4 convicted. Total of cognisable cases reported during the year, 2884, of which 351 were declared to be false by the Magistrate, and 193 were not taken up by the police. Deducting these, there were altogether 2340 'cognisable' cases investigated, in which convictions were obtained in 1726, or in 73'76 per cent. The total number of persons actually tried in 'cognisable' cases was 2558, of whom 2037 or 79.63 per cent. were finally convicted, either summarily by the Magistrate or by the Sessions or High Court.

The number of cases instituted and of persons tried and convicted in 'non-cognisable' cases during 1872 is returned as follows:
—Class I. Offences against the State, public tranquillity, etc. etc.—
Offences against public justice, 108 cases, 112 persons tried, 94 convicted; offences against public servants, 24 cases, 50 persons

tried, 19 convicted; false evidence, false complaints and claims, 20 cases, 22 persons tried, 12 convicted; rioting, unlawful assembly, affray, 12 cases, 25 persons tried, 14 convicted. Class II. Nil. Class III. Serious offences against property—Extortion, 91 cases, 125 persons tried, 13 convicted. Class IV. Minor offences against the person-Hurt, 12 cases, 19 persons tried, 18 convicted; criminal force, 292 cases, 297 persons tried, 98 convicted. Minor offences against property-Cheating, 6 cases, 8 persons tried, 3 convicted; criminal misappropriation of property, 3 cases, 8 persons tried, 4 convicted; criminal breach of trust by public servants, bankers, etc., 8 cases, 8 persons tried, 8 convicted; simple mischief, 95 cases, 130 persons tried, 88 convicted. Class VI. Other offences not specified above-Offences relating to marriage, 60 cases, 69 persons tried, 13 convicted; defamation, 5 cases, 6 persons tried, 5 convicted; public and local nuisances, 3 cases, 3 persons tried, 1 convicted; offences under chapters xviii., xx., xxi., and xxii., Criminal Procedure Code, 16 cases, 11 persons tried, 7 convicted. Special laws not cognisable by police in detail-Police Act (section 29), 14 cases, 14 persons tried, 12 convicted; breach of Arms Act, 25 cases, 25 persons tried, 25 convicted; Cattle Trespass Act, 29 cases, 34 persons tried, 12 convicted; Income Tax Act, 24 cases, 3 persons tried, 3 convicted; Ferry Act, 1 case, 1 person tried, 1 convicted. Total of 'non-cognisable' cases, 850, in which 970 persons were tried and 453 convicted; proportion of persons convicted to persons tried, 46.70 per cent.

Excluding 351 'false' cases, declared to be such by the Magistrate, and 193 cases refused to be taken up by the police, the total number of 'cognisable' and 'non-cognisable' cases investigated in Dinajpur District in 1872 was 3190, in which 3528 persons were tried, 2490 were convicted either by the Magistrate or by the Sessions or High Court; proportion of persons convicted to persons tried, 70.57 per cent., or one person convicted of an offence to every 603 of the District population.

JAIL STATISTICS.—The only jail in Dinájpur District is the one at the Civil Station. The following are the statistics of the jail population of Dinájpur District for the years 1857-58, 1860-61, and 1870. As explained in the Statistical Accounts of other Districts, the figures for the two earlier years are defective, owing to faults in the manner of preparing the returns; they should therefore be received with caution, and looked upon as only approximating to correctness.

An improved form of preparing the return was introduced in 1870, and the figures given for that year may be accepted as accurate.

In 1857-58, the earliest year for which materials are available. the daily average number of prisoners in the Dinajpur jail was 931; the total number of civil, criminal, and under-trial prisoners admitted during the year being 784 (sic). The discharges were as follow:— Transferred, 182; released, 561; escaped, 4; died, 148: total, 895. In 1860-61 the jail returns show a daily average number of 464 prisoners, the total admissions during the year being 791. The discharges were-transferred, 213; released, 659; escaped, 3; died, 98; executed, 1: total, 974. In 1870 the daily average prison population was 348; the total number of admissions during the year being 903. The discharges were—transferred, 74; released, 833; died, 24; executed, 1: total, 932. Although this is an unhealthy jail, the death-rate has considerably fallen of late years. In 1857-58 the proportion of prisoners admitted into the jail hospital amounted to 140.60 per cent., and the deaths to 148, or 15.89 per cent. of the average prison population. In 1860-61 the proportion of admissions to hospital rose as high as 249.60 per cent., and the death-rate to 21'12 per cent.; the total number of deaths during the year being In 1870 the admissions to hospital were 164'94 per cent., and the deaths 24, or 6.89 per cent. of the average prison population. In 1872 the death-rate fell as low as 3.62 per cent., or 1.72 per cent. less than the average prison death-rate throughout Bengal.

The average cost of maintenance per prisoner in the Dinájpur jail at various periods, including rations, establishment, hospital charges, clothing, contingencies, and all items except that of the prison police guard, is returned to me by the Inspector-General as follows:—In 1854-55 the cost of maintenance amounted to Rs. 36. 6. 8 or £3, 12s. 1od. per prisoner; in 1857-58, to Rs. 42. 6. 3 or £4, 4s. 9d. per head; in 1860-61, to Rs. 47. 1. 0 or £4, 14s. 1d.; and in 1870, to Rs. 42. 14. 8 or £4, 5s. 1od. per head. The cost of the jail police guard in 1870 amounted to an average of Rs. 8. 7. 0 or 16s. 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per head, making a gross charge to Government of Rs. 51. 5. 8 or £5, 2s. $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per prisoner.

Jail manufactures and industries have been carried on in Dinájpur jail for about thirty years. In 1854-55 the receipts arising from the sale of jail manufactures amounted to £300, 2s. 6d., and the charges to £107, 11s. 9d., leaving a surplus or profit of £192, 10s. 9d.; average earning of each prisoner engaged in manufactures, Rs. 9. 1. 3

or 18s. 13d. In 1857-58 the receipts from jail industries amounted to £450, 12s. 10d., and the charges to £193, 3s. 1d., leaving a surplus of £257, 9s. 9d.; average earning of each prisoner engaged in manufactures, Rs. 9. 4. 5 or 18s. 6\frac{1}{2}d. In 1860 the receipts from prison industries amounted to £724, 19s. 6d., and the charges to £238, 9s. 6d., leaving a surplus or profit of £486, 10s. od.; average earnings of each prisoner engaged in manufactures, Rs. 28. 7. 2 or £2, 16s. 11d. In 1870 the total credits arising from jail manufactures amounted to £1815, 1s. 9d., and the debits to £2380, 6s. 4d., leaving this year a deficit or loss of £565, 4s. 7d.

The statistics of the Dinájpur jail and lock-up in 1872 are as follow:-Average daily number of civil prisoners, 2'25; undertrial prisoners, 39 75; labouring convicts, 336 70; non-labouring convicts, 8:30: making a total of 387, of whom 5:69 were females. According to the results of the Census of 1872, these figures give one prisoner always in jail for every 3880 of the total population, and one male prisoner to every 2036 of the male population of the District. The total cost of the Dinajpur jail in 1872, excluding public works and the manufacture department, amounted to £1947, 16s. 101d., or an average cost of Rs. 48. 2. 2, or £4, 16s. 3 d. per head. The results of the manufacture department during the year were as follow:-Total credits, £1922, 128. 9d.; debits, £1529, 2s. 6d.; surplus, £393, 10s. 3d. The actual cash account, however, resulted in a loss, the cost of the manufacture department being set down at £1369, 10s. 4d., and the amount of cash actually remitted to the treasury, to £1279, 19s. od., leaving a cash deficit of £89, 11s. 4d. Out of the 336 labouring prisoners, 80.80 were employed on an average in jail duties, or on public works, or by municipalities. Of the remainder, 24 were sick, old, or unable to The numbers employed on each branch of manufacture were occupied as follow: —Gunny weaving, 25 08; gardening, 28 09; manufacturing cloth, 24'04; brick making, etc., 9'46; bamboo, rattan, and reed work, 17:13; oil pressing, 18:29; string and twine making, 47'39; flour grinding, 2'54; carpet making, '89; carpentry, 3'40; iron working, 2'33; grinding pulses, 2'04; tailoring, '41; baking, 1.35; pottery, 5.21; miscellaneous, 3.20: total, 189.37.

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS.—The table on the next two pages illustrates the diffusion of education in the Government and aided schools in Dinájpur District for the fifteen years from 1856-57 to [Sentence continued on p. 432.

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS OF THE DISTRICT OF DINAJPUR FOR THE YEARS 1856-57, 1860-61, AND 1870-71.

								Ž	NUMBER OF PUPILS.	P Purit	ند				
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Aided Vernacular Schools,	H	:	215	র	:	1981	23	:	2974	:	:	-	4	:	4836
Aided Girls' Schools, .	:	:	82	:	:	92	:	:	103	:	:	v	:	:	ğ
Aided Training School,	:	:	H	:	:	8	:	:	25	:	:	:	:	:	£
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EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS OF THE DISTRICT OF DINAJPUR FOR THE YEARS 1856-57, 1860-61, AND 1870-71-

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Sentence continued from p. 429.]

1870-71. It will be seen that the number of schools in the District has increased from 10, attended by 532 pupils, in 1856-57, to 247, attended by 5723 pupils, in 1870-71. The greatest increase is in the number of aided vernacular schools, which rose from 1 to 215 within the fifteen years, while the number of their pupils rose from 46 to 4836 in the same period. A still more rapid increase in the number of these schools has taken place since 1870, under the system of primary instruction inaugurated by Sir George Campbell, late Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal. This further development will be explained in detail in a subsequent paragraph. An interesting circumstance in the following comparative table is the large increase in Muhammadan pupils attending the schools which has taken place of late years. In 1860-61 only 111 Muhammadan lads were returned as attending the Government or aided schools; while in 1870-71 they numbered 3399. The Musalmans form 52.8 per cent. of the District population; in 1870 they comprised 59.4 per cent. of the scholars attending the Government and aided schools. The total cost of education has increased from $f_{.520}$, 6s. 10d. in 1856-57, to £3919, 16s. 1d. in 1870-71, of which the Government contribution has risen from £,395, 5s. 4d. in 1856-57, to £2477, 3s. 7d. in 1870-71. It must be borne in mind that the following table only includes the Government and aided schools under the supervision of the Education Department. There is a large number of private schools in addition, which do not come under inspection, and, as a rule, do not furnish any returns.

Schools in 1871-72 and 1872-73.—Under Sir George Campbell's improved system of primary education, a large number of indigenous village schools, which had previously received no assistance from the State, were admitted to the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules. In the year 1871-72 the Education Department furnished statistics of 284 Government and aided schools, attended on 31st March 1872 by 6267 pupils. In 1872-73, after Sir George Campbell's scheme had been brought into operation, the number of Government and aided schools was returned at 456, attended on the 31st March 1873 by 8174 pupils. Although the number of schools thus brought under the supervision of the Education Department had increased by sixty-five per cent. in a single year, this was effected at a merely nominal cost to the State, the Government grant having only increased from £2495 in 1871-72 to £2568 in 1872-73.

The subjoined table exhibits the number, attendance, cost, etc. of each class of school in Dinájpur District in 1871-72 and 1872-73:—

		-							ı ı	Exicabitum	TURE		
J. Control of	Number.	 i	Pupils on	5 6 th	Average	a pure	Gever	Government		Other Sources.	MICES.	Total	-
	8,1-7,18,2 73.1871-72.1872 73.1871-72.1872 72		871-72	872 73	871-73	873 73	1871-72.	1872 73	1871-78		187.1-73	1871-73	1877-73
Hukher	- ' 	-	123	5		8	250 18 0	21812	01 [†1	0 0	7 0 d	403 8 9	355 18 2
Madile— Government	^	"	8,	198	S. 5	8 9	0 11 101	4 0 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	48 18	80 G	32 15 2	240 12 5	233 0 2
Aided, . Total,	= =	ñ 8.	670	87.	1 1	7.50	0 + 059	+ 84.	0 624 18	8	11 81 051	1255 2 1	979 2 11
Primary Government,	- 2	3	8 7	É	9	27.00	0 81 9501	1220 7	9 586 14	2 6	370 14 5	1643 12 0	1600 2 3
Total.	2	4	48,32	7005		3,5	0 81 4501	2. 2.	~1 88° ló	2	379 14 5	1645 17 6	2 2 000
Normal School	- -	-	43	S T	_ k	3	5 5 5	529 11	31 13	°	0 01 6	6 6 805	539 1 3
Girls' Mded	2	-	3:	ş	151	\$	0 8 1	21 12	4 2 1	17 3	23 60	154 5 3	123 18 0
Grand total.	+ &	đ.	6247	8174	5117	3413	2405	4 9 3563 7 0	0 1471 18	18 7	9 51 6401	\$ 6 LYX	3618 2 6

VOL. VII.

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POSTAL STATISTICS.—There has been a marked increase in the use of the post office within the past few years. Since 1861-62, the earliest year for which statistics are available, the total number of letters, newspapers, parcels, and books has increased from 63.028 to 157,701 in 1870-71, or by nearly two and a half times. The number of letters, etc. despatched from the District post office was 58.677 in 1861-62, and 88,050 in 1865-66. I have not received the returns of the letters, etc. despatched in 1870-71. The total postal receipts increased from £,652, 16s. 2d. in 1861-62, to £,1050, 8s. 6d. in 1870-71; and the expenditure from £, 1124, 58. 5d. in 1861-62, to £1944, 5s. 5d. in 1870-71. The following table, exhibiting the number of letters, newspapers, books, etc. received at and despatched from the District post office, together with the postal receipts and expenditure for each of the years 1861-62, 1865-66, and 1870-71, is compiled from a return specially furnished to me by the Director-General of Post Offices :--

POSTAL STATISTICS OF DINAJPUR DISTRICT FOR 1861-62, 1865-66, AND 1870-71.

	1861	r-62.	1869	;- 6 6,	1870	-71.
	Received.	De- spatched	Received	De- spatched	Received.	De- spatched
Letters,	7.898	712	80,407 7,748 1,954 524	86,954 387 702 7	143,38! 9,543 2,748 2,029	Muterials not received for this column.
Total,	63,028	58,677	90,633	88,050	157.701	
Sale of postage stamps, Cash collections, . Total receipts, Total expenditure,	402 652	3 11 12 3 16 2 5 5	£320 475 795 1426	9 0 15 10	£458 592 1050 1944	8 61

THE SUBDIVISIONAL system of administration has not yet been introduced into Dinájpur District.

¹ Exclusive of receipts from sale of service stamps for official correspondence, which in 1870-71 amounted to £24, 8s. od. Service stamps were first introduced in 1866.

FISCAL DIVISIONS.—The following list of Fiscal Divisions is compiled from the Board of Revenue's parganá statistics. The figures given are not always trustworthy, and must be accepted subject to the statement at the end of the list. I have also incorporated the information obtainable from the Revenue Survey Report; but for Survey purposes, in many cases two or three parganás were reckoned as one, and in some instances parganás which either wholly or in part belong to other Districts have been included. The parganá statements in the Revenue Survey Report quoted below do not, therefore, correspond with the Board of Revenue's statistics.

- (1) AJHOR comprises an area of 86 acres, or 13 of a square mile, contains 1 estate, and pays a Government land revenue of £3, 4s. od.
- (2) ALIGAON: area, 12,631 acres, or 19.73 square miles; 5 estates; land revenue, £,705, 2s. od.
- (3) ALIHAT: area, 4824 acres, or 7.53 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £119, 4s. od.
- (4) AMBARI: area, 12,650 acres, or 1976 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £921, 8s. od.
- (5) AMDAHAR: area, 208 acres, or '32 of a square mile; 1 estate; land revenue, £18, 18s. od.
- (6) Andalgaon: area, 15,657 acres, or 24'46 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £942, 16s. od.
- (7) APAIL: area, 21,802 acres, or 34 of square miles; 20 estates, land revenue, £1455, 18s. od.
- (8) BABANPUR: area, 9874 acres, or 15.42 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £528, 18s. od. This tract is returned with pargand Gorághát in the Revenue Surveyor's Report, which returns the total area at 36,844 acres, or 57.57 square miles. The Revenue Surveyor states (1863): 'The principal place in this tract is Fakírganj on the Karátoyá river. The Karátoyá forms the eastern boundary of the tract, and divides it from pargand Mukhtárpur. A cart-road leading from Gorághát to Bográ enters its northern limit, and traverses it throughout its entire length. The southern portion is open, flat, and well cultivated; the northern is more jungly, particularly along the Karátoyá, where there are some large patches of dense tree and thorn jungle, full of tigers, leopards, wild buffaloes, and hogs. The principal háts or village marts are at Chapurá Hát, Fakírganj, and Kámdiyá Hát. The lands are much intermixed, there being portions of a dozen parganás in this tract. Rice is the

staple produce; sugar-cane, oil-seeds, pulses, etc. are sparingly cultivated, the land being liable to inundation. This entire tract has (1863) recently been transferred to Bográ District.'

- (9) BADOR: area, 14,691 acres, or 22'95 square miles; 5 estates; land revenue, £,794, 10s. od.
- (10) BAHAMANKUNDA: area, 32,786 acres, or 51'22 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £1702, 2s. od.
- (11) BAJITPUR: area, 51,229 acres, or 80'04 square miles; 19 estates; land revenue, £2482, 128. od. The Revenue Surveyor (1863) states: 'The principal villages in this pargand are Chausa Kismat, Fathipur, and Ratanáir. Other market villages-Káranji, Pánísálá, Pungáon, and Dhánkáil. This tract is situated to the west of the town of Dinájpur. It is watered by the Tángan river, which flows through the centre of it from north to south. south-eastern portion is traversed by the Maldah high road. The soil is sandy and the country low; during the rains almost the entire tract is inundated. The Tángan river runs through a stiff yellow clay soil, and has a narrow and deep bed. During the rains it is navigable for boats of the largest size; for eight months of the year by boats of 100 maunds or about 31 tons burden; and at all times for small boats and canoes. Rice is the staple product, the variety known as boro dhan being here extensively cultivated. Other crops—oil-seeds. sugar-cane, and gram. Leopards and pigs are the chief wild animals.'
- (12) BARAGAON: area, 30,973 acres, or 48'39 square miles; 5 estates; land revenue, £1696, 12s. od. This parganá is returned along with parganás Maldwár and Dehattá in the Revenue Surveyor's Report, which gives the total area of the tract as 180,457 acres, or 281'96 square miles, and describes it in the following remarks:— 'This tract is the most north-western portion of the District, and is separated from Purniah District by the Tángan river. It is traversed by the Tinái and other minor streams, and also by cart-roads in various directions. The principal villages are Tariá, Beliá, Udáipur, Baháman Kumár, Kásimpur, Rás-bázár, Purán, Pátakátá, Kuch Beharl, Ganjáir, Murmálá, Kálíganj, Dogáchhí, etc. The famous annual Nekmard fair, in honour of the memory of a Muhammadan pir or saint, is held in the southern portion of parganá Barágáon.'
- (13) BARBAKPUR: area, 887 acres, or 1'38 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £45, 2s. od.
- (14) BATASUN: area, 11,558 acres, or 18.05 square miles; 6 estates; land revenue, £139, 2s. od.

- (15) BEHINNAGAR: area, 40,463 acres, or 63'32 square miles; 17 estates; land revenue, £2914, 43. od. The Revenue Surveyor (1863) states:—'This parganá is a long tract running north and south, the southern extremity being parallel with, and three miles distant from, the town of Dinájpur. The eastern boundary follows the course of the Purnabhábá, and the western of the Tulái river. The parganá contains some large jhils and grass patches, but the level of the country is higher than in the south. The following are the principal villages in which periodical markets are held:—Suráhár, Bhundkhálí, Upúrpurí, Harípur, Shikárpur, Dhukárjhárí, and Berol.'
- (16) BHUINHARA: area, 27,163 acres, or 42.44 square miles; 10 estates; land revenue, £1779, 8s. od.
- (17) BIJAINAGAR: area, 99,561 acres, or 155'56 square miles; 39 estates; land revenue, £9545, 12s. od. The Revenue Surveyor in his Report returns the area of this parand (probably including also that of minor pargands) at 119,550 acres, or 186.80 square miles, and describes the tract as follows:—'This pargand is situated in the centre of the District, and contains the town and headquarters station of Dinájpur. It is bounded on the east by the Atrái river, and on the west by the Tulái nálá. The high road to Dárjíling traverses its whole extent from north to south. Raised earthen roads diverge from the town and Civil Station, leading to Rangpur. Bográ, Maldah, and Purniah. The country is mostly inundated during the rains, but the sites of the native town and Civil Station on the banks of the Purnabhábá are high, and above inundation mark. The soil is hard, friable, and sandy, and produces a richer crop of rice than that of any other parganá in the District. The tract is almost entirely owned by the Rájá of Dinájpur; and besides rich crops of rice, yields oil-seeds, sugar-cane, vetches, grass, etc. The principal grain-marts are Sahibganj on the Atrai to the southeast, Nayábandar, and Nawábandar. The latter is eighteen miles south of the town of Dinájpur, and forms the emporium of that place during the dry months of the year, when large boats cannot reach Dinájpur. Principal market villages-Chak Kanchan, Mádhabpur, Debpur, and Kásiádángá on the Purnabhábá; Ishánpur, Násipur, Mahádebpur, and Sukhdebpur on the Dhápá; Chak Párbatípur on the Atrái; and Tájpur, Baránái, Berol, Gopínáthpur, Palásbári, Básuriá, and Sáidebour. Tanks are very abundant throughout the parganá, and amongst them are some very fine ones,two near the Rájá's residence to the east of the town, called Anand

Ságar and Mathá Ságar, and one at Rám Ságar, six miles south of the Civil Station on the Calcutta high road. The latter is a favourite resort and bathing-place of the European community of Dinájpur during the hot weather and rains. Apart from a few leopards, the parganá is little infested by wild animals, except at one or two localities in the vicinity of the station well known to sportsmen as the resort of tigers. Three annual fairs are held, the principal of which takes place in the month of November, at Nimtárá, two and a half miles south of the Civil Station, in honour of Rádháballabh Thákur. It is patronised by the Rájá of Dinájpur, and is attended by two or three thousand persons.'

- (18) BINDHARA: area, 5936 acres, or 9.26 square miles; 3 estates; land revenue, £286, 14s. od.
- (19) CHALUN: area, 9238 acres, or 14.43 square miles; 9 estates; land revenue, £383, 2s. od.
- (20) CHARKAI: area, 9833 acres, or 15'36 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £365, 2s. od.
- (21) CHATNAGAR MULGAON: area, 129 acres, or '20 of a square mile; 1 estate; land revenue, £8, 18s. od.
- (22) CHAURA: area, 18,835 acres, or 29'42 square miles; 11 estates; land revenue, £444. The Revenue Surveyor states: 'This is a small parganá in the south-western extremity of the District. It lies a little to the east of the Dárjiling road, nearly surrounded by Rájsháhí District, and is divided into two distinct portions. It is an open, flat, rice-producing country. A cart-road leading to Nítpur mart traverses the southern portion of the parganá. There are a great many tanks. The market villages are Kasbá Chaurá, and Barágáon.'
 - (23) DEBIKOT: area, 32,986 acres, or 51.54 square miles; 9 estates; land revenue, £2305, 14s. od. The Revenue Surveyor states: 'This is a small parganá situated to the north of parganá Madnabátí, its south-east corner abutting on Maldah District. It is low-lying, and contains several large marshes, the principal of which are the Man, Siklá, Harípur, and Kutámái bils. The climate is unhealthy in consequence of these marshes. Boro rice is cultivated in the swamps when they dry up in March or April. The Purnabhábá runs through the parganá from north to south; and the Tángan river forms its boundary for a few miles at its south-east corner, where the parganá is traversed by the Maldah high road. The principal village is Dam-damá, which contains an old fort; near

the village are two large tanks, called the Dhul dight and the Kall dight. The market villages are Gangárámpur and Síbpur, the latter being a considerable grain-mart on the Tángan. Belhári and Jáipur are also places of note.'

- (24) DEHATTA: area, 75,694 acres, or 118'27 square miles; 17 estates; land revenue, £4216, 2s. od. This pargand is returned in the Revenue Survey Report along with pargands Barágáon and Maldwár. For a brief description of the tract, see No. 12.
- (25) DELWARPUR: area, 54,118 acres, or 84.55 square miles; 9 estates; land revenue, £1880, 2s. od.
- (26) DEORA: area, 101,337 acres, or 158.33 square miles; 37 estates; land revenue, £,9307, 10s. od. The Revenue Surveyor describes the parganá as follows:—'The principal place is Jetmalpur, at the confluence of the Kánkrá and Chiri streams on the Rangpur high road; the village contains a grain-mart and a bázár. market villages are Binyakuri, Phiringi, and Jessai. Phiringi, situated on the Atrái, has also a large grain-mart. Remains of old indigo factories are found at Chak Jaidebpur and at other places. The eastern boundary of the parganá follows the course of the Jamuná, and the western that of the Atrái river, with occasional breaks. The Ichhámatí flows through it from north to south; also the Kánkrá, a branch of the Atrái, which bifurcates at Shágtorá and reunites with the parent stream at Dhakaer. The Chiri enters the pargand at its south-west corner, and unites its waters with the Kánkrá at Jetmalpur. The Rangpur high road passes through the centre of the parganá east and west. The country generally is flat and open, and produces fine crops of rice.'
- (27) DHANJOR: area, 37,442 acres, or 58.50 square miles; 10 estates; land revenue, £2249, 128. od. The Survey Report returns the area of this parganá at 60,759 acres, or 94.93 square miles, and describes it as follows:—'The principal villages are Bangsihári, Painálá, Galchorá, Mangalbári, Aonagar, Galdighí, Tilái, Harírámpur, etc. The parganá is bounded on the east by the Tángan river, on the west by the Chirámatí, and to the south by Maldah District. The Baliá nálá, which intersects it from north to south, divides it into two equal portions. The country lies low, and is subject to inundation during the rains.'

Parganás Dhanjor, Suráhar Maniker, Rádháballabhpur, Tájpur, Mahása, Khalárá, Jhapartáil, and Behinnagar form the southwestern portion of Dinájpur District, comprising at the time of the

Survey an area of 752'31 square miles. These parganás all possess the same general features; and the following quotation from the Revenue Survey Report is applicable to the whole tract:- 'Nature of the country.—The surface is undulating, with a perceptible inclination to the south-west, and is elevated about 150 feet above sea-level. The land is well cultivated, but encumbered with extensive patches of coarse grass and marshes covered with reed-jungle. During the rains the rivers overflow their banks, and render a large extent of country a sheet of water. Production:.—The crops raised are rice, sugar-cane, Indian corn, and pulses of many kinds; tobacco is grown principally in the vicinity of villages. The rice harvest is carried on very carelessly. The ears alone are cut off: the straw is not always considered worth removing, and is left on the field. grain is removed by labourers; carts and cattle are seldom used for this purpose. Indigo was extensively cultivated some years ago in the neighbourhood of Churáman, but from want of proper care and attention to the quality of the dye, the speculation proved unprofitable. Fisheries.—Fish exist in all the bils, and large supplies are daily taken to Ráiganj and neighbouring market towns. methods of catching fish are various; both drag and casting nets are in general use. The ihálangá or bamboo trap is much used in small rivers and marshes. Regular fishermen pay the proprietors for the right of fishing; the profits derived from the fisheries are said to be considerable. Roads.—Two bad kachá (unmetalled) roads pass through this portion of the District: one leading from Dinájpur to Purniah, passes through Akbarnagar, Hemtábád, and Ráiganj; the other, to Krishnaganj in Purniah, passes through Bindol and Harfpur.' [Since this was written, many new roads have been opened During the scarcity of 1874, the famine relief works, undertaken to provide labour for the destitute, principally took the form of road-making.] 'The traffic of these parts is carried on by water or on pack-bullocks; wheeled conveyances are seldom used. During the dry months, pathways are formed leading from village to village. Soil.—Generally speaking, the soil is a light grey-coloured clay mixed with sand. Immediately under the surface soil a stiff blue clay appears, near the swamps mixed with black vegetable mould and numerous small fresh-water shells. Lands subject to inundation occupy a large proportion of the whole, and present a singular intermixture of barren and fertile soils. One season a field is overwhelmed with sand, and the next year it is covered with a rich

and deep deposit of clay. Exports.—These are mostly confined to rice, mats, and boats. The mats are made from reeds which grow in the marshes; the boats are mostly built of sál timber brought from the Dárjiling tarái, and are exported to Maldah and other places lower down the Mahánandá. Gunny-bags are brought from the north, and are shipped on the Mahananda. Imports.—The imports are copper and brass cooking utensils from Maldah and Murshidábád; cotton from Purniah and the Dárjiling tardi; salt, English cloth, betel-nut, and mustard-seed. Towns.—Raigani, situated on the eastern bank of the Kulik river, is the principal mart for imports and exports. It is a fine, substantial town, surrounded by extensive fields of rice, and contains numerous tanks. ('huráman, on the Mahánandá, is also a place of some importance. The chief market towns and villages are the following: - Ráiganj, Churáman, Harípur, Bindol, Durgápur, Sítáhár, Siolí, Bodhurí, and Galchorá. Most of the villages are wretched in appearance; nearly all the houses are thatched with grass, and have walls made of reeds plastered with clay. The huts are huddled together; and fires are frequent and destructive. Mango, jack, and palm trees are planted round the villages. Rivers .- The principal rivers are the Mahananda, Kulik, and Nágar; the latter forms the western boundary between this District and Purniah to within six miles of Churáman, when the Mahánandá becomes the boundary. Boats of the largest size ascend the Mahánandá during the rainy months, and extensive rafts of timber are floated down it from the Dárjiling tarái. The Kulik is a deep but narrow stream, and has its source near the village of Bhogján in parganá Sálbári. It falls into the Nágar river about eight miles north of the junction of the Mahananda and Nagar. Besides these rivers, there are numerous smaller ones intersecting the country in every direction. There are few bridges; most of the rivers are fordable, except during the rains. Fera natura.—The country abounds with tigers and leopards and small game. Tigers make frequent incursions from their haunts in the ruins of Panduah (Peruah), killing many cattle, and occasionally human beings. The long grass on the banks of the Mahánandá gives shelter to numerous wild hogs. The villagers are harassed at nights by watching the crops, to keep off wild animals. Climate.—The climate is remarkable for its humidity. Immediately after the rains, fever is very prevalent, occasioned by noxious exhalations from the low lands. During the hot months, although the heat is excessive during the day, the nights are comparatively cool. Fevers contracted during the rains are followed by splenitis and chronic rheumatism. Dysentery and leprosy are not uncommon.'

- (28) FATHIJANGPUR: area, 597 acres, or '93 of a square mile; 1 estate; land revenue, £19, 10s. od. According to the Revenue Surveyor, this parganá has an area of 60'323 acres, or 94'25 square miles; but although it formed a part of the Dinájpur Survey, it belongs to Bográ District. It may be as well, however, to quote the Revenue Surveyor's remarks on this tract here :- 'This pargana' is bounded by parganá Khattá on the south-east, and by Rájsháhí District on the south-west. It is intersected by the Jamuna and Tulsiganga rivers from north to south. The country is low and swampy, bears a jungly appearance, and is covered with numerous tanks, ditches, water-courses, and swamps. The latter are frequented by herds of buffalo and wild pigs, and flocks of wild fowl. The principal of these marshes are the Chabri and Hástar bils. The tract is subject to inundation; the villages are very small, and the want of communication between them is greatly felt. The northern portion of the pargand is particularly jungly, and is infested by tigers. The principal village, also a grain-mart, is Bálubhárá, on the Jamuná river. There are other grain-marts at Bádalgáchhí and Hazrátpur on the Jamuná. The staple crop is rice, but sugar-cane and gánjá are also extensively cultivated. The latter is the common hemp, from the dried leaves of which the natives extract an intoxicating liquor called bháng. The dried flowers called gánjá are mixed with tobacco and smoked, and form an intoxicating drug. A juice is obtained from the green leaf which is used by confectioners in making sweetmeats.'
- (29) GHAGRA: area, 2131 acres, or 3.32 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £13, 2s. od.
- (30) GORAGHAT: area, 38,559 acres, or 44.62 square miles; 16 estates; land revenue, £1765, os. od.—See No. 8.
- (31) GILABARI: area, 94,469 acres, or 147.60 square miles; 52 estates; land revenue, £8369, 14s. od. The Revenue Survey Report describes the parganá as follows:—'This is a large, open, flat, and fertile tract, producing much rice. It is bounded on the north and east by the parganás of Deorá and Swarrúppur, on the south by the parganás of Sultánpur and Santosh, and on the west by the Atrái river. The Bográ high road enters the parganá near its north-west corner at Samjiá, and traverses it diagonally to Chintáman

in the south-east corner; the Pátirám tháná road also passes through It is well watered by the Atrai, Jamuna, and Ichhamati rivers; and although subject to inundation during the rains, is less swampy and jungly than any other pargand in southern Dinajpur, and is also better cultivated. It is very highly assessed. The chief place is the village and grain-mart of Samjiá on the Atrái; other large villages are Sujápur and Mukhtárpur on the Jamuná river, and Rádhikapur and Jakhírpur on the high road. Periodical markets are also held at the following villages: - Gobindganj, Khayrakari, Barhia Hát, Shámshernagar, Fakirganj, Gangáprasád, Maksudpur, Chak Ináyatpur, Rámánand, Raghunáthgani, Borahattá, Jhaleswari, Malidángá Hát or Chintáman, Rásulpur, Kuruldángá, etc. Gobindganj there is also a grain depot. Native cloth is made at Borahattá; and the ruins of an indigo factory are found at Ináyatpur. Besides rice, sugar-cane, mustard-seed, pulse, onions, tobacco, etc. are produced. Several Government khais mahals are situated in the parganá. Annual fairs are held at Fakirganj on the Atrái, and at Jaykrishnapur near Chintáman. At the latter, which is numerously attended, a considerable trade in cattle, cloth, and other commodities is carried on.'

- (32) HANSIA BANGALIPUR: area, 2604 acres, or 406 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £169, 6s. od.
- (33) HATINDA: area, 939 acres, or 1°46 square nules; 1 estate; land revenue, £23, 6s. od.
- (34) JAHANGIRPUR: area, 444,922 acres, or 695'19 square miles; 13 estates; land revenue, £11,110, 28, od. The Revenue Surveyor returns the area of this pargana at only 78,429 acres, or 122'54 square miles; but a great portion of it lies within Bográ District, and this part is probably not included in the Dinájpur Survey. The Revenue Surveyor describes the parganá as follows: - The principal village is Dorálá, which possesses a good bázár and granary, situated on the banks of the Atrái. The country is flat and open; it is traversed by the Atrái from north to south, and is bounded on the east, south, and west by the District of Rajsháhí. There is no road of any consequence except a fair-weather one leading from Sibpur to Dinájpur; there are several large bils or Market villages-Alipur, Chándas, Uttargáon, Chak marshes. Dori, Pahárpur, Srírámpur, Husáinpur, Mahesbathán, Mahádebpur, Patnítálá, and Nagipur. The staple produce is rice.'
 - (35) JHAPARTAIL: area, 42,788 acres, or 66.85 square miles;

ro estates; land revenue, £2112, 48. od. The Revenue Survey Report describes the parganá as follows:—'This parganá is situated to the north-west of the town of Dinájpur. It is intersected by the Tángan river and other smaller streams; also by the road from Kríshnaganj to Dinájpur. The principal village is Sádámahal; and periodical markets are held at the following places:—Rámpur, Ajnábád, Síbpur, Chaburiá, etc. The parganá is not so low-lying and swampy as those which lie to the south of it.'

- (36) KANKJOL: area, 1550 acres, or 2.42 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £34, 12s. od.
- (37) KANTNAGAR: area, 48,734 acres, or 76'14 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £2622, 14s. od.
- (38) KARAIBARI: area, 6959 acres, or 10.87 square miles; 5 estates; land revenue, £318, 8s. od.
- (39) KASIMPUR: area, 31,523 acres, or 49.25 square miles; 5 estates; land revenue, £933, 4s. od.
- (40) Khalara: area, 79,850 acres, or 124'76 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £3600, 8s. od. The Revenue Surveyor states: 'Parganá Khalárá borders on Purniah District, from which it is divided by the Nágar river. The principal village is Harípur; and periodical markets are held at the following places:—Bedsárí, Kushtiá, Sutíkátá, Sibganj, Betná, Sitálsirí, Dhirganj, Bághichá, Kálíganj, Dighir, etc.'
- (41) KHANGOR: area, 1285 acres, or 2'01 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £75, 14s. od. According to the Revenue Survey, this parganá comprises an area of 69,580 acres, or 108.72 square miles. Although comprised within the Dinájpur Survey, it belongs to Bográ District, with the exception of the small tract returned by the Board of Revenue. I quote, however, the Revenue Surveyor's Report on the whole parganá, which is as follows:—'This parganá is bounded on the north by parganá Sarhattá, on the east and south by parganás Gorághát and Poládasí, and on the west by parganá Saguná. The Tulsigangá river runs through it from north to south. It is a flat country, rather open; but there is no deficiency of jungle, grass patches, and marshes in particular localities. The tract to the west of the Jamuná river is decidedly jungly, and in this respect is different from the rest of the pargand. The Bográ high road, passable for carts at all seasons, passes through it from north to south. Branch roads also lead to Gorághát on the Karátová river, and from Lál Bázár to Jáipur. The principal village is Híli on the Jamuná

river, which contains a large grain-mart, a market, and a hisdr. Bághjáná village, on the Jamuná and Bográ high road, was formerly a place of some consequence. There is a dense jungle immediately in its vicinity, which contains several fine temples and the ruins of others, together with numerous well-built burnt-brick houses (some in a state of good preservation); also many fine tanks overgrown with aquatic weeds and jungle, and now the resort of tigers. village also contains the ruins of an abandoned indigo factory. damá village is also a grain depot, and has a considerable market. In former days the East India Company had an agency at Dam-damá for the purchase of cloth manufactured in the neighbourhood. The following villages have periodical markets: - Syámpur, Belámli, Kandurli, Hichmi, Bághjáná, and Pánchbibi.' As illustrative of the trade carried on at these village háts or markets, the Revenue Surveyor gives the following long list of articles offered for sale in the Panchbibl hát one market-day in March 1860 :- Cows, goats, fowls, eggs, pigeons, fish, rice, parched rice, potatoes about the size of marbles, sweet potatoes, beans, parched beans, unrefined sugar, sugar-cane, brinjáls, chilies, turmeric, plantains, pán leaves, betelnuts, spices, sweetmeats, madrak (an intoxicating drink), tobacco leaf, skull-caps, combs, brushes, tools, native jewellery, shoes, flowers, earthenware vessels and water-pots, canes, bamboos, bead necklaces and bracelets, bamboo mat baskets for holding grain, palm-leaf fans, bamboo mats, raw silk from the Palma Christi silk-worm, playthings, bridal ornaments and votive offerings made of solá, hookahs made from cocoa-nut shells, gánjá, knives, soap, wax, brass and iron nots and pans, oil of various kinds, empty bottles, lead, raw cotton, pumpkins, milk, curds, ghi, chunam, wheat, and pulses. Also the following imported articles: -- Salt, cocoa-nuts, pictures, books, looking-glasses, long stockings, cotton piece goods, fishing lines and hooks, paper, pens, needles, thread, string, tape, pins, and lucifer matches. The Panchbibi market is rather larger than the generality of village háts.

(42) KHARAIL: area, 15,098 acres, or 33.59 square miles; 3 estates; land revenue, £959, 18s. od. The Revenue Surveyor states: 'The only villages of any note in this small parganá are Kharáil and Mallikpur. The country is open and flat, and produces rice. It is bounded on the north-east corner by the Atrái river, on the south by parganá Santos, and on the west by parganá Khardaha. Tanks are very numerous. In the west of the parganá is a bil called

the Kusigang, which contains good drinking water and fish. The villages are very small.'

- (43) Khardaha: area, 130,726 acres, or 204'25 square miles; 47 estates; land revenue, £6984, 10s. od. The Revenue Surveyor states: 'This parganá is partly bounded on the west by Maldah District. The country is open, and abounds in rice cultivation. The Dárjíling high road passes through it from south to north, and the Atrái river traverses its north-east corner. Tanks are very numerous. Large patches of grass exist towards the Maldah boundary; and a considerable marsh, called the Dulá bíl, in the south gives rise to a water-course (ndlá) which falls into the Purnabhábá river. The principal village is Kasbá Khardaha; and in the following periodical markets are held:—Kasbá Khardaha, Bajrá Pukhári, Kasbá Badánpur, Bhawánípur, Kakná, and Madháil. Aichorá is a grain-mart on the Atrái.'
- (44) KHAS TALUK: area, 2388 acres, or 3.73 square miles; 5 estates; land revenue, £118, 10s. od. The Revenue Surveyor returns the area of this parganá at 59,701 acres, or 93.28 square miles; but besides a considerable portion which belongs to Rangpur District, the tract contains part of Gorághát and several other parganás. The Revenue Surveyor describes the tract as follows:-- 'It is bounded on the east by Rangpur, from which it is divided by the Karátoyá river. The parganá is much cut up and intersected by rivers and khulls. The Morá, a branch of the Karátoyá, flows through it from north to south. A large tract of sál and dense and impenetrable tree-jungle runs a few miles from the Karátová and parallel with it for nearly the whole length of the pargand, infested by tigers, leopards, wild buffalo, hog, deer, and peacocks, all of which are very destructive. The staple crop is rice: but a good deal of the country being pall land, potatoes, sugarcane, tobacco, oil-seeds, pulses, etc. are freely cultivated. The principal place is Gorághát on the Karátoyá, the only place in the whole of the southern part of Dinájpur that can be called a town. one good street of shops of banids and other dealers. There are a few substantially-constructed houses made of brick and mortar, but the rest are mere huts with bamboo walls. There is a police thana at this place, and a cart-road leading to Dinájpur town vià Báduriá. There are large tracts of waste land in the vicinity of the town. which are said to have formed the site of the Muhammadan military cantonment of Gorághát, in the days when Gaur was the seat of

government in Bengal. The market villages are Balghári, Báduriá, and Ráníganj.

- (45) KHET LAL: area, 2397 acres, or 3.74 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £189, 4s. od.
- (46) KHULSI: area, 33.051 acres, or 51.64 square miles; 8 estates; land revenue, £1749.
- (47) KHUPI: area, 12,620 acres, or 1971 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £771, 10s. od.
- (48) Kunj Goraghat: area, 7816 acres, or 12'21 square miles; 3 estates; land revenue, £376.
 - (49) LALBARI JAGIR MAI MUKHTIPUR, and
- (50) LALBARI KHALISA: two pargands, area of both returned together in the Board of Revenue's statement at 17,241 acres, or 26.73 square miles: the first contains 2 estates; land revenue, £411, 6s. od.; the latter, 4 estates, with a land revenue of £408.
- (51) MADNABATI: area, 10,418 acres, or 16:27 square miles; 3 estates; land revenue, £511, 4s. od. The Revenue Surveyor returns the area at 16,374 acres, or 25:58 square miles, and describes the pargand as follows:—'This is a small tract bordering on Maldah, following the course of the Tángan river to the west, and intersected by the Purnabhábá from north to south. It is low and marshy, and much cut up by small kháls. It is subject to inundation during the rains, and is considered very unhealthy. The largest bil is in the south of the pargand, and is called the Chakdaha bil. There are many tanks. The principal villages are Hazrátpur, Bisrol, and Básuriá. Some of the villages are moderately large.'
- (52) MAHASA: area, 62,070 acres, or 96'98 square miles, 22 estates; land revenue, £4191, 8s. od. The Revenue Surveyor states: 'The parganá is full of marshes, and is subject to inundation. It is bounded on the north-east by the Tángan river, on the south-east by the Gámar, and on the west by the Kulik. The principal place is Hemtábád, 26 miles west of Dinájpur town, where there is a police station (tháná). A cart-road leads to Dinájpur; and another, which connects the Ráiganj and Pírganj thánás, passes through the parganá. The market villages are Jarbar, Karnái, Lochan Mandil, Gumáshtá, Suníspur, Boráibárí, Pírganj, etc.'
- (53) MAHASINHPUR: area. 11,123 acres, or 17'37 square miles; 5 estates; land revenue, £708.
- (54) MAHANAGAR: area, 11,376 acres, or 17.77 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £245, 25. od.

- (55) MALDWAR: area, 37,099 acres, or 57'96 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £2029, 42. od. This parganá is returned in the Revenue Surveyor's Report along with parganás Barágáon and Dehattá. For a brief description of the tract, see No. 12.
- (56) Maligaon: area, 33,571 acres, or 52'45 square miles; 4 estates; land revenue, £2398, 18s. od. The Revenue Surveyor states: 'This is a small pargand, bounded on the west by the Tángan river; the south-west corner abuts on Maldah district. The Maldah high road runs through the pargand parallel to the Tángan. The southern portion of the pargand is flat and open; the northern, grassy and jungly, and covered with swamps. Tanks are very numerous, and some contain alligators. The staple crop is rice; but sugar-cane, oil-seeds, tobacco, potatoes, pulse, etc. are also cultivated. The principal villages are Mahípál, Sáhat, Boro-hát, and Kántábárí. The former Rájá of Malígáon had his residence at Mahísál, where there is an extensive tank; but the whole place is now a dense jungle.'
- (57) MASIDHA: area, 51,121 acres, or 79'87 square miles; 5 estates; land revenue, £3491, 6s. od. The Revenue Surveyor states: 'This parganá is situated to the north of Jahángírpur, the south-west corner abutting on Rájsháhí district; it is traversed from north to south by the Atrái river. The country generally is open and flat, but the northern portion is jungly. There are numerous large bils; and several fair-weather cart-roads connect the principal villages. The staple crop is rice; and there are grain-marts at Chanchan Masidhá and Chálá Masidhá on the Atrái. The following villages have periodical háts or markets:—Gopálpur, Husáinpur, Sibpur, Madreshahr, Chanchan Masidhá, and Chálá Masidhá. The villages are very small.'
- (58) MATHURAPUR: area, 19,351 acres, or 30°23 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £764, 14s. od.
- (59) NURPUR: area, 52,025 acres, or 81'28 square miles; 24 estates; land revenue, £3913. This parganá is returned in the Revenue Survey Report along with portions of Behinnagar, Deorá, and Jalbarí. The Revenue Surveyor states: 'This tract is traversed by the Dárjíling high road; also by the Dhápá river, a broad branch of the old Tístá, which flows into the Purnabhábá at the town of Dinájpur. The country here is higher and drier than in the south of the District. The principal village is Bírganj on the Dhápá river, where there is a police station; considerable local

trade is also carried on here. Some of the principal market villages are Old Kárul, Báládhángí, Kantáir, Akheraganj, etc. Kántánagar is a large village on the Dhápá river on the Dárjíling road, where there is a fine temple. It is the first posting stage out of Dinájpur.'

- (60) PANJRA: area, 142,265 acres, or 222'28 square miles; 34 estates; land revenue, £6398, 125. od. The Revenue Surveyor returns the area of this pargama at 89,596 acres, or 139'99 square miles, and describes it as follows:—'This is a long narrow tract, bounded on the north by the large pargand of Salbari, on the east by Rangpur District, on the south by pargands Swarruppur, Deorá, and Bijáinagar, and on the west by parganá Nurpur. The Tistá river enters at the northern boundary of the pargand, and, after traversing it southwards for a considerable distance, bifurcates near the south-western boundary, and loses its name, the eastern branch becoming the Atrái and the western the Dhápá. The Jamuná also enters the pargana from the north-east, and flows through it in a southerly direction. The pargand is cut up by hhals and the halffilled-up beds of large rivers. Rice is extensively cultivated in the low, flat lands, and also in the deserted beds of rivers; but the land being high, and the soil of the description known as pall land, the following crops are also extensively grown :- sugar-cane, tobacco, onions, potatoes, jute, hemp, ginger, turmeric, oil-seeds, gram, An leaf, pulses, and vetches; of which ginger, turmeric, sugar, onions, and jute are exported. Bamboos are very abundant and luxuriant in growth. The villages are large, averaging nearly a square mile in area; the horned cattle and goats are not so diminutive in size as in the southern pargands. There are also sewer tanks. The principal market villages are Jáiganj on the Tístá, Khánsámanbandar, Jharbari, Bhusi, Bindakhari, and Gobindpur. The first four named are also grain marts.'
 - estates; land revenue, £597, 12s. od. According to the Revenue Surveyor, this parganá contains a total area of 111,737 acres, or 174.59 square miles; but although it formed a part of the Dinájpur Survey, the greater portion of the parganá then belonged to Bográ District, and since then much of the remainder has been added to Bográ. It may be as well, however, to give here the Revenue Surveyor's remarks on the tract:—'This tract is bounded on the east by the Karátoyá river, on the south by three Bográ parganás, vol. VII.

and on the west by pargands Fathsjangpur, Saguná, and Khangor. The Bográ high road crosses its south-western corner, and there are other fair-weather roads; but on the whole there is (1863) a great deficiency of communication between the villages. It is, a large, flat, open country, in which rice is abundantly produced. It is, however, a good deal cut up by tanks, ditches, and marshes: some of the latter are of considerable dimensions, and are frequented by herds of wild buffaloes, which cause great destruction to the sugarcane and rice crops. It is traversed from north to south by the Tulsigangá, and by a branch of that river on the banks of which tigers are abundant. The principal village is Kásbá Kismat; and the following also possess periodical markets:—Sirhatti, Krishnanagar, Hatáshar, Pánitálá, Dárídahá, Surír-hát, Itákholá-hát, etc.'

- (62) PHULBARI: area, 33,586 acres, or 52.47 square miles; 6 estates; land revenue, £1805, 14s. od.
- (63) Pustall: area, 18,535 acres, or 28'96 square miles; 7 estates; land revenue, £893. The Revenue Surveyor states: 'This is the most south-westerly pargand of Dinájpur; it is bounded by Maldah District on the west, and abuts on pargand Chaura and Rájsháhí District on the south-east. The Dárjíling high road traverses it from north to south, and a cart-road from Rangpur to Maldah passes through it from east to west. It is an open, rice-producing country, covered with large patches of grass, bils, and jungle near the Maldah boundary. The principal place is the large village and grain mart of Nítpur. The following villages also possess periodical markets:—Harípur, Porshá, Dasnagar, Ghátnagar, Soponah, Tentuliyá, and Nischintípur. Porshá village, on the high road, contains also a police station.'
- (64) RADHABALLABHPUR: area, 23,304 acres, or 36.41 square miles; 4 estates; land revenue, £640, 12s. od. The Revenue Surveyor, in his report, returns this pargand along with Suráhár Maniker, and describes the tract as follows:—'These parganás form a long tract of country running north and south, bounded on the east by the Chirámatí river, on the south by Maldah District, and on the west by the Mahánandá river. The country is low and swampy, with large grass patches and bils. A cart-road running from Ráiganj to Maldah passes through the southern or Rádháballabhpur portion. The principal village is Churáman, a grain mart of considerable importance, situated on the Mahánandá river. The following also have market-places:—Náyá Boridángá, Baidán,

Kaliánganj, Bholáganj, Kumár Bhawáníganj, Májír, Saroli, Páthiráj, Báigungáon, Gaurípur, Dumrol, Dakhíhár, Suníbári, Kátábári, Bodhbári, etc.'

- (65) RAJMAGAR: area, 98,438 acres, or 153'79 square miles; 29 estates; land revenue, £5507, 14s. od.
- (66) SAGUNA. This pargent is not returned in the Board of Revenue's statistics, and although it formed a part of the Dinájpur Survey, now belongs to Bográ District. It may be as well, however, to quote the Revenue Surveyor's remarks on the sargand here:-- Area, 53,239 acres, or 83'19 square miles. It is an oblong tract of country stretching north and south; its eastern boundary follows the course of the Jamuna river for a considerable extent, and its western boundary that of the Sulfi-kharoi nadi. It is traversed from north to south by the Chiri river. The country is very jungly, overrun by dense tree-forest and grass jungle, which springs up with amazing rapidity; tigers, buffaloes, and wild pigs abound. and are very destructive. There is a large HI near Mangalbari, and several others scattered over the pargund. Good roads intersect the tract in all directions. They communicate with the police stations (thánás) of Bádalgáchhi and Lál Bázár, and connect the villages of Mangalbari and Jamalganj Buzurg. The latter is the chief place in the pargand, and is a substantial Bengali village. Periodical markets are also held at Durgádahá, Mallaipur, and Jáipur. Indigo was formerly manufactured at Jáipur. Besides rice. -sugar-cane, cotton, oil-seeds, onions, pulses, barley, oats, and potatoes are raised. Sugar-cane and cotton are not so freely cultivated as formerly.'
- (67) SALBARI: area, 319,886 acres, or 499.81 square miles; 75 estates; land revenue, £18,494, 148. od. The Revenue Surveyor's Report only embraces a portion of this large pargand, consisting of 161,708 acres, or 252.67 square miles. He describes the tract as follows:—'This tract embraces a portion of Sálbári pargand. It is situated at the north-eastern extremity of Dinájpur, being bounded on the north by Purniah and on the east by Rangpur. It is the largest pargand in the District; the villages, also, are of greater size, the country more open and higher, and more free from swamps and inundations than any of the southern pargands. Rice forms the staple product; but the following crops are more plentifully raised than in the lower lands:—tobacco, jute, hemp, onions, oil-seeds, potatoes, turmeric, ginger, pulses, etc. It is traversed by the

Dárjíling high road, and the Tángan river passes through the entire length of the parganá from north to south. The principal villages are Akhánagar, Dakshin Batina, Jángáon, Pírganj, Thákurgáon, and Nischintípur, the three latter being also police stations. The market villages are about 66 in number.'

- (68) SANTOSH: area, 232,835 acres, or 363.80 square miles; 56 estates; land revenue, £11,370, 14s. od. The Revenue Surveyor's Report returns the area at 262,972 acres, or 410.89 square miles (a portion being within Bográ District), and describes the tract as follows:— Santosh is the most extensive and important parganá in the southern half of Dinájpur. It is a large rice-producing tract of country, flat and low. It is divided into two almost equal parts by the Atrái river, which flows through it from north to south; it is also traversed in the same direction by the Khulkulia Khari. The soil is hard, friable, and sandy, and produces good rice during the rains; it is subject to partial inundation. Considerable jungle extends along the banks of the Atrái, and in some parts there are large bils. two principal of these are the Krutra and Ghuksi bils, the latter being situated on the nálá of the same name. Both jungle and marshes are infested by tigers, leopards, buffaloes, and wild pigs; the two former commit great havoc among the horned cattle, and the two latter among the rice and sugar-cane cultivation. The villages are invariably surrounded and protected by low tree-jungle, bamboos, grass, and plantain trees. Tanks and ditches are very abundant, and the country is much cut up by them and by small water-cuts and nálds. A good District road runs between the villages of Pátirám and Patnítálá along the Atrái; other fair-weather roads connect the principal villages. Crops-rice, sugar-cane, oilseeds, barley, onions, tobacco, potatoes, pulses, etc. The principal produce-depôts and granaries are the following:-Pátirám, Madangani, Págli-bandar, Bálughát, Rángámáti, and Patnítálá. Pátirám and Patnitila are also police stations. The following are the more important market villages:-Ramdebpur, Bhaur, Biswanathpur, Maglispur, Dewar, Názírpur, Dokrá, Rámchandrapur, Kásípur, Bhátgáon, Udáisirí, Phasáipárá, Sankarpur, Pátí, Aolí, Aránagar, Gohán, Dacháir Kismat, Bhátrá, Mahmudpur, Fathípur, Debípur, Bálupárá. Pátkholá, etc.'
 - (69) SARHATTA: area, 22,801 acres, or 36.41 square miles; 7 estates; land revenue, £1406, 42 od. The Revenue Surveyor returns the area of the pargand at 51,878 acres, or 81.60 square

miles, and gives the following description of the tract:- 'It is bounded on the north by parxand Swarrippur, on the south by Khángor, on the west by Sultánpur; the eastern boundary follows the course of the Harin river, which is the name given to the upper portion of the Tulsiganga. It is flat and open, but many patches of tree and thorn jungle exist; also a few sál-bans, or small forests of bastard sall trees. The pargand is intersected by the Badr river. There are several considerable-sized bile in the neighbourhood of Tarpanghát, the Ansular, Baraní, and Kuriar being amongst the largest. The principal village is Tarpanghát, on the banks of the old Karátoyá river. There is a police station at Nawáhganj, in the extreme north of the paryand, on the banks of the old Karátoyá. Formerly there existed a Government opium factory at Dáudpur, two miles south-east from the police station, as also a fine básár, but both are now in ruins. Dáudpur is still, however, of some note as being the residence of some influential samindars. The place is overgrown with dense thorn and tangled jungle, and, being situated on high ground, is a favourite resort of tigers during the rains. Other villages of note are Chosikái and Bijan; and those having markets are Nawabganj, Bijan, Baninshahr, Atadighi, Digshan, Daudpur, etc. An annual fair is held at Tarpanghat in April, which lasts fifteen days, and is attended by from four to five thousand persons. The road running from Chintaman to Goraghat runs through this pargand, and it is partially traversed by that from Habra to Daudpur. The pargana is liable to inundation. The staple product, as usual, is rice; sugar-cane, tobacco, oil-seeds, pulses, etc. are also cultivated.'

estates; land revenue, £3665, 128. od. The Revenue Surveyor states: 'This is a fine open rice-producing parganá, situated nearly in the centre of the District. The Atrái runs through it near its north-eastern boundary, and the Purnabhábá traverses its western portion. The Dárjíling high road runs from north to south through its centre; and a road leading to Dam-damá, and running parallel with the Purnabhábá, passes through its western portion. Bordering on parganá Debikot is a large marsh called the Patái bil; there are also a large number of tanks, and a very fine one at Pránságar. The villages average half a square mile in area; the sites are well secured by thickets of trees, low jungle, bamboos, grass, and plantains. The principal villages are Tárá, a grain mart on the Atrái,

and Kathálíhát and Kátátair on the Purnabhábá. At the following villages periodical markets are held:—Tárá, Kátátáir, Máhur, Kismat Udái, Chálun, and Takrun-hát.'

- (71) SHERFUR: area, 3840 acres, or 6'00 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £213, 6s. od.
- (72) SHIKARPUR: area, 60,058 acres, or 93.84 square miles; 10 estates; land revenue, £ 1061, 16s. od.
- (73) SIESAHAR: area, 507 acres, or 0.78 of a square mile; I estate; land revenue, \pounds_{27} , 8s. od.
- (74) SUJANAGAR: area, 21,561 acres, or 33.68 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £454, 128. od.
- (75) SULTANPUR: area, 34,501 acres, or 53'90 square miles; 9 estates; land revenue, £2485, 128. od. The Revenue Surveyor returns the area of the parganá at 62,740 acres, or 98.03 square miles, and describes it as follows:—'This parganá is a flat and rather open country, but there is no scarcity of jungle, tanks, bils, or watercourses. The high road to Bográ passes through its whole extent from north to south, and it is traversed in different directions by the road from Nawabganj tháná to Dinajpur, and by that from Chintáman to Pátirám thána. The Chíri, Ghuksí, Khulkuliá, and Jamuná rivers all traverse it from north to south, and other minor streams exist. The principal marshes are the Kálídah bíl in the north, and the Kochná and Máná in the south of the parganá. The principal village in the tract is Berámpur, a large grain mart on the Jamuná. The following also possess periodical markets, - Mirzápur, Khátá, Borár, Ketrá, Jot Bání, Bátul, and Kántlá. The latter is a grain mart on the Jamuna. This pargand is subject to inundation from the Jamuna during the rains. Rice is the staple product: and the following are also sparingly cultivated: -sugar-cane, oilseeds, pulses, potatoes, onions, pán leaves, tobacco, vetches, etc. Cotton cloth is manufactured at Bátul. Government possesses some khás mahals in this parganá.
- (76) SURAHAR MANIKER: area, 28,139 acres, or 43'96 square miles; 11 estates; land revenue, £785, 18s. od. This parganá is returned in the Revenue Surveyor's Report along with Rádháballabhpur. For a brief description of the tract, see No. 64.
- (77) SURJYAPUR: area, 25,097 acres, or 39'21 square miles; 2 estates; land revenue, £900, 10s. od.
- (78) SWARRUPPUR BHITARBAND: area, 74,740 acres, or 116.78 square miles; 6 estates; land revenue, £4526, 6s. od. The

Revenue Surveyor returns the area of pargund Swarruppur at 138,345 acres, or 216'16 square miles, and makes the following remarks:-'This is a long, narrow tract, running north and south about thirty miles, bounded on the east by the Karátoyá river, here an insignificant, slow, tortuous stream, which appears to have silted up of late years, and which separates the parxima from Rangour District. The tract is very much intersected by water-cuts, dry nálds, and small streams. There are several outlying patches of bastard sall trees. Jungle exists in the extreme south, near Nawabgani, and towards the south in the vicinity of Baghchara, which is infested with tigers. Leopards and hog are found in the bils and jungle, and are very destructive. The Rangpur road runs across the parxand from east to west; and a fair-weather cart-road from Jessai, on the Jamuna, passes through Hábrá, and leads to Nawábganj thánd. Clumps of fine bamboos are to be seen everywhere. Besides rice, the following crops are also freely cultivated, -- sugar-cane, ginger, turmeric, oilseeds, hemp, jute, tobacco, pán leaf, and onions. principal village in the pargand, is a large grain mart, situated on the small river Tilái, which falls into the Jamuna near Basudebpur. There is a police station here. The principal market villages are Hábrá, Bághchará, Mangallári, Jessái, and Phulbári. There are the ruins of many old indigo factories in this tract, particularly along the Karátoyá and Jámuná rivers.'

- (79) TAHERPUR: area, 254 acres, or 39 of a square mile; sestate; land revenue, £12, 6s. od.
- (80) TAJPUR: area, 72,838 acres, or 113'65 square miles; a estates; land revenue, £3363, 14s. od. The Revenue Surveyor states: 'The principal village in pargand Tájpur is Ráiganj, situated on the Kulik river, which is a large grain mart, and one of the most important seats of trade in the District. The principal market villages are Sirájganj, Fakírganj, Koldángi, Bindol, Balaiyá Dighí, Barádwárí, Jugi, Pánch Bayá, Mahárájá, Pírgáchha, Kálí Durgápur, Baodabárí, etc.'
- (81) UCHANNASTA: area, 3499 acres, or 5'46 square miles; 1 estate; land revenue, £110, 125. od.

The statistics thus furnished by the Board of Revenue exhibit a total area of 3,311,658 acres, or 5174'46 square miles, comprising 778 estates, and paying a total Government land revenue of £173,351. The details in the foregoing list, however, must be received with caution, as, although the totals approximate, they do

not absolutely agree with those obtained from more trustworthy sources. Moreover, it is not stated in the Board of Revenue's statistics to what year the figures refer. According to the latest return I have received from the Boundary Commissioner, the present (1874) area of Dinájpur District is 4095'14 square miles. In 1870, the Collector returned 739 estates on the District rent-roll, paying a total Government land revenue of £173,454.

CLIMATE.—'The climate of Dinájpur,' says the Revenue Surveyor, is on the whole much cooler than that of Calcutta; the hot weather does not set in so early, and the nights are always cool and pleasant till the end of April. The District, however, is very unhealthy. The villagers have a sickly appearance, and many are annually carried off by fever and cholera. The unhealthy period of the year for strangers begins about the middle of March, with the hot weather, when they are liable to get diarrhæa, fever, or cholera. Natives principally suffer in September and October, at which time very few escape fever. When they sicken, they are attended by their own doctors, or kabirájs, in whose skill and medicines they place great confidence.

'The year, as in the rest of Bengal, is divided into three seasons, -the hot, the rainy, and the cold. The hot season may be said to commence about the middle of March, and to terminate about the end of May. It is ushered in by strong westerly winds, which prevail until the first showers of rain begin to fall in April or the beginning of May. This wind is hot and dry, and causes a rapid evaporation of the waters in the marshes and tanks, and when followed by a light easterly wind, as is often the case, produces sickness and fever. The nights during the first two months of this season are cool and pleasant; occasional showers of rain fall towards the end of April, which reduce the temperature. In May. and immediately before the setting in of the rainy season, they become more frequent; by this time the weather has become very hot, and the nights hot and oppressive. Strong gales from the north-east and north-west, accompanied by thunder and lightning, occur at the setting in of the rains. The rainy season may be said to have fairly set in by the first week in June. Previous to this period, the showers have been light; but now the rain falls heavily, the wind blowing from the south and east, and the rice cultivation proceeds. The rivers soon swell, the marshes assume the dimensions of lakes, and the country in general is submerged, and impassable to travellers except to those proceeding along the high roads or in boats. The more elevated lands do not long remain submerged, for, as the rivers subside, the waters flow back into their channels, and are carried off; but many of the low lands, having no outlets, become vast bils or marshes, several of which are perennial. The heavy rain ceases about the 1st of October, after which light showers occur with intervals of sunshine, during which time the atmosphere is steamy, very hot and oppressive, causing fever, from which few escape. The cold weather sets in about the 15th November, by which time the weather has become cool and pleasant. From November to the middle of February, heavy dews fall at night, and thick mists and fogs occur in the morning, but they are soon dispelled by the sun's rays. At this time it is generally sufficiently cold to require a fire and woollen clothing; and the poorer cultivators, who have neither, suffer from the low temperature. Light variable winds prevail until the beginning of February, when strong westerly winds begin to blow, and again usher in the hot season about the middle of March.' The Civil Surgeon returns the temperature of the District in 1860 as follows: -Average of all the highest, 92'3°; highest in May, 105'02°. Average of all the lowest, 74 8°; lowest in December, 63°. The Meteorological Department, in 1872, returned the average rainfall of the District for the ten previous years at 85'54 inches. The monthly rainfall in 1872 was as follows:- January, 0.95 of an inch; February, 0.87; March, 0.03; April, nil; May, 4.00; June, 14.02; July, 17 66; August, 16 73; September, 10 92; October, 10 61; November and December, nil. Total for the year, 7579 inches, or 9.75 inches below the average of the ten previous years.

DISEASES.—Remittent and continued severs, ague, enlargement of the spleen, bowel complaints, cholera, and small-pox are the principal diseases of the District. The Civil Surgeon states that in 1869, 60 deaths from cholera were reported throughout the whole District. It appeared in a sporadic form, and was easily stopped from spreading. Small-pox made its appearance in January 1869 at Bángsihárí; and in April and May at Hemtábád and Rájarámpur. There were in all 281 cases, out of which death resulted in 26, or 9'2 per cent. of the cases treated. In every case the cause of the disease was traced to inoculation. Two sorms of cattle disease prevailed in the District in 1869,—the soot disease, and what is apparently an inflammation of the throat and mouth. The latter disease the Civil

Surgeon states that he has found easily curable, by the frequent administration of small doses of hyper-sulphate of soda, and by washing the mouth and throat with a solution of the same.

THE DINAIPUR CHARITABLE DISPENSARY was founded in 1862. It is supported by local subscriptions, and receives Government aid in the shape of the native doctor's salary, and the supply of European medicines and surgical instruments free of cost. In 1871 the total number of in-door patients treated in the hospital amounted to 212,of whom 153 were cured or relieved; o were not improved or ceased to attend; 44, or 20.75 per cent., died; and 6 remained in hospital at the end of the year: average daily number of sick, 0.00. out-door patients receiving treatment the same year numbered 2652; average daily attendance, 25.44. In the following year (1872) the statistics of medical relief were as follow:-The in-door patients numbered 244.—of whom 140 were cured or relieved; 56 were not improved; 40, or 16:39 per cent., died; and 8 remained in hospital at the end of the year: average daily number of sick, 8:35. The out-door patients numbered 2396; average daily attendance, 35:33. The total income in 1872 amounted to £236, 18s. od., of which £,146, 128. od. was contributed by Government. The expenditure in the same year was £249, 4s. od. A new dispensary was established in October 1872 at Raiganj, supported by the liberality of the local samindár.

Indigenous Drugs.—The following list of indigenous drugs and medicines used by the kabirdis, or village doctors, and their properties, has been furnished to me by the Civil Surgeon :- (1) Add, or ginger. The root used in colic indigestion; it has the properties of a carminative or stomachic. (2) Ajwan or jowani. The seeds are eaten, sometimes with betel leaf, in colic indigestion; same properties as the above. (3) Alu bokhara. The fruit makes a cooling drink, used in fevers to allay thirst; sharbát is also made from it. (4) Am kasi, the stone of the mango fruit roasted and powdered, and used in fever and dysentery as an astringent. (5) Amid, an astringent, used in gonorrhoza and in urethral disorders. (6) Imli or Tetul (tamarind), used as a cooling drink to allay thirst in fevers. It is cooling, diuretic, and a mild laxative. (7) Amrul, eaten mixed with food in scurvy. (8) Anar or ddlim (pomegranate). The juice of the seeds are made into sharbat, as a cooling drink in fevers. The rind is an astringent, and is given in dysentery cases, boiled in milk. The root is an anthelmintic, and a decoction of it is given

in cases of worms. (9) Imil paid, the leaves of the tamarind tree, boiled into a decoction, and given in dysentery. (10) Agié phés, a sweet-scented grass, given as tea in fevers; it is a disphoretic and a diuretic. (II) Arenda tel, castor-oil, used in sever and dysentery as a purgative. The leaves of the castor-oil tree are used for fomentations in rheumatism. (12) Bukchi, a sweet-scented fruit, the seed of which is boiled in oil, and given in cases of leprosy. (13) Bábur or bdbld. Seeds from the tree, soaked in cold water and mixed with sugar, are given in cases of sore throat, as a cooling drink. Sharbdt is also made from the seeds. The bark of the tree, boiled in water, is an astringent, and is given as a gargle in cases of syphilitic sore throat. The gum of the tree is an emollient, and is mixed with cough medicine. (14) Bácrá. The covering of the stone of the fruit is soaked in water, and used for irritation of the urethra; it is astringent and cooling. (15) Bel. The pulp of the ripe fruit, mixed with water and sugar as a sharbat, is used in dysentery and diarrhoea; it is astringent and cooling. The raw fruit, with other ingredients, and formed into a decoction, is also given in dysentery and diarrhoea. The leaf, powdered and mixed with other ingredients, is given as a digestive. (16) Bihi dand. The seeds mixed with water make a sharbát, given in coughs; it is a demulcent. (17) Bháng, a narcotic intoxicating drug, administered in debility and for want of sleep. Much used as an intoxicant. (18) Bhant. The bark of the root powdered and given in costiveness; a cathartic. (19) Bách barendra. The bark heated and used as a fomentation in rheumatism. The gum, mixed with haritaki and supari, is used for sore gums. (20) Bar haldi. The root, fried in ghi, is used in colic. (21) Bihi dáná, cough mixture. (22) Bhendia, nutritious stimulant and emollient. (23) Barer pát. The leaves, boiled in water, are given in anasarca and dropsy cases; it is a diuretic. (24) Boriala pat. The powdered leaves applied on boils as a blister. (25) Bach. Root used in coughs, to allay irritation of the throat. (26) Bel chhal, the bark of the bel tree, used as a decoction in fevers. (27) Kalapnath. The plant and leaf are used as an infusion in fever. (28) Kdt karanja. The kernel of the fruit and the tender leaves are used, with black pepper, as a febrifuge; it is bitter and tonic. (29) Kaifal. The powdered bark given as cough powders or mixtures; it is a stimulant and stomachic. (30) Chákuliá. Plant and leaves used in fever and anasarca; it is a diuretic. (31) Chihi supari, used for sore gums, mixed with haritaki, and as a tooth-powder or paste : it

is an astringent. (32) Dhaturd. The dry leaves are smoked like tohacco in asthma; an antispasmodic. (33) Dhunia. Seeds powdered and used as a sharbat in fever; a stimulant, tonic, and carminative. (34) Dálchíní. The bark of the tree is powdered, and oil expressed from it; used in diarrhoea, headache, loss of appetite, etc. (35) Daru haridra. Wood used as a decoction; it is heating, and a carminative. (36) Dhawar phul. The dried leaves are considered stimulating, and given in childbirth to promote labour. (37) Debdaru. The wood is used in fever as a febrifuge. (38) Nariyál, or cocoa-nut. The fruit is used in fever and paralysis. (39) Gáchh marich. The fruit and seeds are used as a gargle in sore throat; as an infusion it is a stimulant. (40) Gánjá, used in tetanus. (41) Godhum, a poultice. (42) Gol marich, or black pepper, an ingredient in cholera pills; stimulant and stomachic. (43) Gandh birosa, used in cases of bubo as a poultice. (44) Gild. The seeds used internally as an aphrodisiac, and in coughs as an expectorant, and externally in poultices. (45) Gáb. The pulp of the fruit used in dysentery and diarrhoea; an astringent. (46) Gandak, or sulphur, used in skin diseases and as a purgative. (47) Golanchá, used as a decoction in gonorrhœa, also in slow fever. (48) Gaj pipul. The bark of the seed is used in weakness; it is cooling. (49) Gokru. The green plant and dried seeds and capsules are highly mucilaginous. (50) Gao sabán, dried leaves used in the shape of a decoction, as a diaphoretic, and alterative. (51) Gao lochan, gall nuts, used in jaundice. (52) Haritáki, used in gonorrhœa; also mixed with supári nut as a toothpowder. (53) Haridra (turmeric). The macerated root applied externally in skin diseases, mixed with nim leaves; it is also taken internally. (54) Hababir, or juniper berries, used in gonorrhœa, and as a diuretic. (55) Habul kilkil, the wild pomegranate, used as an astringent. (56) Harital, sesqui-sulphate of arsenic, used in fumigations, and also given internally. (57) Hirakas, sulphate of iron, used as a tonic in spleen, and applied to the gums in toothache. (58) Hingul, per-sulphuret of mercury, used externally and in fumigations. (59) Isabgul. Seeds used for loss of voice, burning of urethra, and for small-pox in the shape of sharbát; it is a demulcent. (60) Indraiab. Seed and bark given internally in dysentery, and applied externally in colics. (61) Jasti madhu, liquorice, used in coughs, and for moistening the tongue and throat in fever. (62) laisel, or croton, taken internally as a purgative; applied externally as a counter-irritant. (63) Kandura. The powdered root used in ascitis, and in coughs as an expectorant; it is diuretic. (64) Kuchild. Small pieces are kept in the mouth and the saliva swallowed; a tonic. (65) Kúlájirá, a strongly-scented seed, used as an anthelmintic. (66) Rántálá. An infusion of the dry leaves is given to promote diaphoresis in coughs and fevers. (67) Kulinjah. aromatic, bitter root used in fevers, and to promote digestion. Kuthi. Root used as a tonic. (69) Kuchnar. Bark used as a tonic in fevers. (70) Khorassan Kutki, root of the black and white hellebore, used as a drastic and cathartic to cause abortion. (71) Kundar rumi, mastic. used internally as an astringent. (72) Kamrangd, an acid, dry fruit, given in fever. (73) Kaladana. The root, half-roasted, is used as a purgative. (74) Kálá meghá. The bitter root is used as a stomachic. (75) Kusim. Seed and leaves used as a sudorific and carminative. (76) Kamráj. Root used as a restorative and aphro-(77) Kupilá, given internally as an anthelmintic. (78) disiac. Loban, used as an aphrodisiac. (79) Lufa, the fruit of the mandrake, used as a narcotic. (80) Nil, or indigo, applied externally to ulcers, especially in horses. (81) Lanka sij. The acrid juice is applied externally to ulcers. (82) Lild tutiyd, sulphate of copper, used as an escharotic only. (83) Lohdr ka lockan, iron filings, used as a tonic, (84) Mai bukd, small pearls, used as an aphrodisiac. (85) Rudar. The leaves are used in gout, being bandaged over the affected parts. (86) Musa bhar, used in cases of enlarged spleen; a purgative. (87) Mandsd sij. The root, mixed with stimulants. is given for snake-bite. (88) Maju phul, gall nuts, given as an astringent, and also applied externally. (89) Magra chal. The seeds are administered internally in cutaneous diseases; also used in leprosy. (90) Nim. The leaves boiled in water used as a fomentation in sprains and bruises; also as a poultice when powdered; the bitter bark of the tree is used as a febrifuge. (91) Usard, gamboge, used as a drastic purgative; also applied externally. (92) Udruj, a yellowish gum, applied to the forehead in headaches. (93) Uda sálep. The roots used as an astringent and diaphoretic. (94) Para, mercury, used internally and externally with other drugs. (95) Pipla mul, the root of the long pepper, given to women as a stimulant after childbirth. (96) Palás pipál. Seeds used as a purgative, and in horse medicines. (97) Pudiná. Dried leaves powdered are used in colic; an infusion of fresh leaves used in fever. (98) Sijná. The powdered bark given in colic; if taken in large quantities, it causes abortion.

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MALDAH, RANGPUR, AND DINAJPUR.

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